

COMMUNITY POLICING

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Shaping the Future

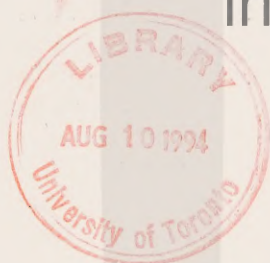
LEADERSHIP IN TURBULENT TIMES



Ontario

Ministry of the
Solicitor General and
Correctional Services

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Leadership in Turbulent Times

A discussion of the role of police leaders in
the initiation and management of change

Ministry of the Solicitor General
and Correctional Services of Ontario
and
Ministry of the Solicitor General
of Canada

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Preface

Leadership in Turbulent Times was prepared for the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario by Deputy Commissioner Peter Campbell, Ontario Provincial Police and Organizational Strategies Group Inc.

This report is part of a series of manuals on community policing produced jointly by the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario and the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada. The objective of the series is to provide information on the implementation of community policing, focusing on planning, management processes, training and operational strategies. These reports are designed for use by all members of the police services, police services boards, community groups, students of policing/criminology, educational facilities, police college instructors, and government officials.

The ministries wish to express their appreciation to the police managers and officers who have contributed to the report.

*Barry Leighton & Marsha Mitzak
Series Editors*

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Table Of Contents

Introduction	1
The Evolution Of Policing	3
A model for orderly growth	3
The failure of success	4
The response	6
Why change is slow	6
The Need For Change	9
Community policing	9
Strategy	10
Structure	10
Culture	12
The Leader's Role In Change	15
From bureaucratic management to strategic management	15
From administrative management to people management	17
From status quo management to change management	18
From management of others to management of self	19
Conclusion	21
Getting back to normal	21
Learning is what you do in school	22
We have always done it this way	22
The experts have the answer	23
Finding the quick fix	23
End Notes	25

Introduction

Comfortable! That's what we have been these past few decades. Comfortable with our role as police officers, with our role as police managers, and in our relationship to our surroundings.

We saw ourselves as separating the good from evil in society; we knew how to manage our resources because we were following tried and true methods. Because few questions were asked about what we did and even fewer demands for change made, we assumed that we were in step.

Well, times change. Today the police are front and centre in almost every major issue facing society. Our role as police officers is no longer as clear. The public expect us to do something about drug problems, impaired driving, domestic violence and young people in conflict with the law. And they expect our actions to have long term impact on the quality of community life.

External forces such as the increased demand for police service, the changing nature of criminal activity, fiscal restraints, increased police accountability, and growing recognition that current police methods are not as effective as once thought, are forcing us to examine what we are all about.

Internally, higher education levels, increasingly sophisticated police training, new and better data analysis along with more thoughtful approaches to policing are also precipitating change.

This paper is about the role of leaders, particularly police leaders and the initiation and management of change. It is about the skill and necessary abilities required to direct and manage our organizations in this time of fundamental change. It is about poking and prodding classic police bureaucracies towards new roles and visions and it is about the changes in police leadership required to make it all happen.

Studies of leadership are hardly new, and have provided understanding of the characteristics of good leaders and the way they relate to subordinates. However, one must also consider the wider context in which leaders operate: the organization as a whole, its philosophies and the broader community and society in which it functions.

The business of policing in Canada is engaged in an important and significant process of rethinking. How we come out of this process, how we survive, will depend to a great extent on our ability to provide strong, effective and modern leadership during this turbulent time.

The Evolution Of Policing

A Model for Orderly Growth

The growth of policing in Canada reflects the development of the country itself. As railways, industries, towns and cities have expanded, policing has responded to the need for social order and control. Police forces have played a wide variety of roles: from licensing at the local level to the secret service at the federal level. Although rudimentary organizations were in place at the local, provincial and federal levels by the end of the nineteenth century, their growth was relatively slow until the 1960s, when they began to rapidly expand in response to Canada's growing population and urbanization.

The philosophy of policing as it emerged during these years was a combination of English and American ideas. The principles of Sir Robert Peel were adapted in the early years, emphasizing public involvement and police accountability to the public. So, in the first decades of this century, constables patrolled their beats on foot, knew their constituents, and counted on citizens to assist in controlling crime and maintaining order.

As the century unfolded, radios, telephones and patrol cars were introduced, adding a level of technological sophistication to policing, but increasing the distance between police and the community. The development of technology supplied the means for police communications centres to control the network of patrols that gave a continuous police presence in the community. Rapid response and random patrol became pervasive in North America.

Scientific Management

Scientific management principles adopted to combat corruption in U.S. police forces began to influence Canadian police organizations in the middle of the century. Although corruption was not a major factor in this country, the theories around centralized chain of command, narrow

span of control and close supervision combined with and reinforced the military heritage of policing and provided a model for orderly growth in Canadian law enforcement.

As police organizations expanded during the 1960s, new ranks, rules and procedures were introduced to manage the complex centralized structure. Specialization grew as well, to handle the many different components of police work. The primary role of the manager was to control police activities through authority, standards and close supervision.

It is important to note, however, that this role was not unique to policing. Scientific management principles have, for most of this century, dominated all forms of organizations and centralized functional structures have become the norm in the private and public sectors. This form of organization has proved highly efficient in an era of rapid growth, but has resulted in an emphasis on short-term procedures rather than longer-term planning. It focused on conforming to set standards rather than finding innovative solutions, and created a gap between constituents and their service providers. In his book on policing, John Sewell states that "by 1980, there were more than 58,000 public police personnel in Canada, with total expenditures of \$1.7 billion."¹ Within an institution of this size, it is little wonder that control and compliance were emphasized.

The Failure of Success

What saw us through one era, however, won't necessarily work in another. The fact is that compliance within a myriad of rules, safe as it may seem, tends to stifle initiative and the ability to problem solve in a creative way. The examples of this scenario have become well known to us.

The volumes of regulations and procedures developed to prescribe standards and behaviour for police officers removed, in theory at least, much of the discretion inherent in the role. Patrol officers are however routinely faced with complex problems and must make decisions based upon their own judgement of the situation.

Rapid response to calls for service became a cornerstone of police operations. It *did* succeed in reducing response times and was therefore seen to provide efficient police service. However, this reactive form of policing led to dealing with discrete incidents after they occurred rather

than dealing with the underlying issues. As a result, patrol officers are often frustrated at their powerlessness to deal with recurring neighbourhood incidents other than in a fragmented after-the-fact way.

The structure required for rapid response to calls for service has led to an elaborate, technology driven, centralized communication and dispatch system. With the ever-increasing volume of calls for service, however, an immense strain is being placed on police resources. It is important to realize that not all calls for service require immediate attention or dispatching of an officer to the scene. One analyst suggests that probably 60% of calls do not require a response at all and can be dealt with by telephone². However, the current system has created an expectation of perpetual rapid personal attention, with the result that as much as 60% of a patrol officer's time is "uncommitted to any specific task"; the officer is simply providing a police presence and waiting for the next call³.

Additional research shows that despite the effectiveness of rapid response as a primary purpose and strategy of policing, response time has little effect on crime and arrests, citizen levels of fear of crime or public satisfaction with police. There are numerous indications that this strategy, if it continues to be pursued exclusively, will lead to failure and certainly reinforce the image of police as remote, impersonal and reactive to crime. In fact, this drive-by policing has resulted in some police being known as "the men with no legs."

Crimefighters

The image of police as primarily crimefighters has led to an emphasis on training in fitness, defence and enforcement. Clearly, dealing with serious criminal events is the most significant task in officers' careers and for this they must be prepared. In reality, these events account for a very small proportion of their work. Studies have shown that police officers typically spend only 20% of their time actually dealing with crimes or violations⁴. The crime-fighting focus however, leads to a narrow philosophy in training and obscures the wider purpose of policing, namely service to the community.

The image of police as the "thin blue line" separating hostile villains from peaceful citizens has made the public passive recipients of police service, rather than partners in solving crime. Citizens know very little about police activities and have a much greater fear of crime than is justified

by the actual number of criminal incidents⁵. Much of this fear is related to order maintenance problems rather than serious crime.

Public Expectations

Public expectations and demands have also changed in the past few decades, reflecting Canada's changing population, multiculturalism and urban growth. While largely satisfied with police services, the public increasingly expects the police to deal with social services and order maintenance issues. As previously noted, such matters comprise a large proportion of police officers' time. There is also a growing expectation that police forces better reflect the communities they serve in their hiring practices, including more women and ethnic group representation. In addition, there is a demand for more police openness and accountability, particularly in the use of weapons and force.

The Response

Amidst all this change and questioning, police bureaucracies have struggled to respond. Many have simply tried to get better at doing the same things, reinforcing current strategies, tightening control and fiercely defending current methods. Others, however, have seen that options do exist and are attempting to introduce more participative approaches to planning and management, trying to enhance police-community relations through crime prevention strategies, public education and the reintroduction of foot patrol. Although research has shown that these alternative approaches are successful in reducing fear of crime, maintaining order and improving public image, change to our current police practices has not been widespread and traditional patterns have not generally been disturbed.

Why Change is Slow

Accomplishing major change in any large organization presents difficult challenges. The strength of bureaucracies is their efficiency at implementing strategy; their weakness is their inability to change when that strategy is proven ineffective.

In police bureaucracies however, in addition to the absence of a tangible "bottom line" incentive, there are some unique factors that may make change even more difficult to accomplish.

Virtually all police executives have worked their way up through the operational hierarchy by means of their police expertise and their ability to conform to police traditions. This tends to produce trained specialists who are *managers of the status quo*. This management style focuses on adherence to rules and traditions, for many excluding even the possibility that choices could be made.

So, although promotion-from-within has been a central tenet of all traditional bureaucracies, most large organizations have been forced to modify this policy to promote change, encourage new and broader perspectives, and to acquire trained and seasoned general managers. It would appear that this is also happening in large police organizations.

A second and related factor that prohibits change in policing is the solidarity and strength of the police culture. Besides sharing similar training, interests and work experiences, police share a sense of isolation from the community. The concept of police as the "thin blue line" imposing restrictions on a permissive society, often produces fear, hostility and criticism among citizens. This sets up a "we/they" syndrome that fosters a "circle the wagons" mentality among police officers who feel that the public does not understand them or their role. A strong self-sealing organizational culture of trust and camaraderie is therefore produced, based upon a powerful set of common values and attitudes. While this solidarity is a strength in performing many police functions, it may in fact prohibit organizational changes which appear to threaten the status quo. To a significant degree, it is in this position that police organizations find themselves today.

The Need For Change

Most of us dislike change. We prefer to know where we stand; we like the comfort and stability of familiar ways. This is also true of our organizations, since in today's world our personal identities are closely associated with what we do for a living. Nowhere is this better demonstrated than in policing, where the culture of dedication and loyalty make being a police officer an all-encompassing role in life. To change that role is to change who we are. So, as policing changes, police officers will be required to make tremendous adjustments.

In the face of the requirement to make such adjustments, we often try to resist change and create "myths" that the familiar ways of doing things are still best. Over time, however, our once successful strategies can become overvalued and are pursued in a one-dimensional fashion, good practices becoming bad habits. Stability, control and continuity can become rigidity and ironbound tradition. Everything is "by the book". Procedures are followed because "we've always done it this way." There is little room for trying anything new.

While significant barriers to change exist and some arguments can be made for continuance of past strategies, the evidence for a need to change is clear and unavoidable.

It does not mean starting from scratch, throwing out all the good with the bad. It is more a renovation that is needed, in which the best elements of the present are maintained and new elements are added to increase the overall effectiveness of the organization. Police values of integrity, dedication and equitability are vital to providing service and protection. To these must be added the values of community problem-solving, partnership, openness and accountability. Quite simply, the future of Canadian policing lies in community-based policing.

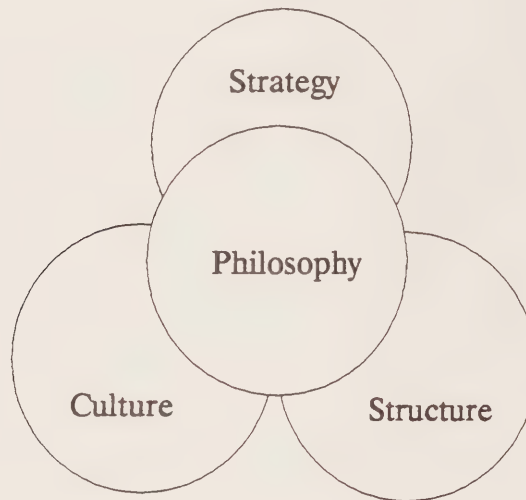
Community Policing

Community policing provides the basis for a transition in police organizations. It is a multi-dimensional philosophy from which changes in strategy, structure and culture can occur and the philosophical change is

the core of all transition. Such changes must be integrated with it in a comprehensive way to achieve the organization's purpose. Like a jigsaw puzzle, all the pieces must fit together if the picture is to be seen clearly. Figure 1 illustrates this relationship.

Fig.1

**Elements of an
Organizational
Structure**



In Tables 1, 2 and 3, each of the elements flowing from the community policing philosophy are summarized to show the direction of change which must occur.

1. Strategy

Changes in strategy involve redefining the organization's relationship to its clients. They focus on the kinds of services offered and the way they are delivered. The goal of strategic change is to rethink "what business we're in" and to reposition the organization for success in the future. The community policing philosophy suggests the strategic changes outlined in Table 1.

2. Structure

Changes in structure involve roles, reporting relationships, training and rewards. They focus on the way the organization is designed to carry out its strategies and the way it is managed. The goal of structural change is to redefine working relationships so that strategies can be effectively implemented. The community philosophy suggests the structural changes outlined in Table 2.

From

- narrow focus on crime control programs
- emphasis on serious crimes
- reactive approaches
- rapid response to calls for service
- dealing with incidents in a fragmented way
- remote from community, depersonalized
- technology-driven
- efficient-"doing things right"

To

- broad focus on service to the community
- emphasis on community problem-solving
- reactive and proactive approaches
- variable response depending on need
- dealing with broader community issues
- connected with community, interactive
- needs driven and technology assisted
- effective-"doing the right things"

Table 1

From

- centralized structure
- specialization of roles
- standardization, uniformity
- autocratic style-"command and control"
- operational management of status quo
- focus on short term procedures
- focused patrol officer role - narrow duties
- training emphasis on fitness and defense
- performance based on "quantity" of arrests, tickets, etc.

To

- decentralized structure
- generalist and specialist roles
- flexibility, innovation, diversity
- participative style - individual responsibility and discretion
- strategic leadership of change
- focus on longer-term impact of strategies
- enhanced patrol officer role - generalist duties
- balanced emphasis on defense and community relations
- performance based on "quality" of achievements of community goals

Table 2

3. Culture

Changes in culture involve attitudes, values and norms of behaviour. They focus on rethinking the “way we do things around here” with regard to organizational standards, rules and expectations. The goal of cultural change is to modify patterns of behaviour so they fit the organization’s purpose and generate commitment in its members.

The direction of change presented in these tables is obviously simplified. In fact, they overlap and support each other. They are also not “either/or” statements; *transitions are very complex and involve a constant balance between past and present practices*. Managing this balance presents a significant challenge to police leadership. Research on organizational transitions shows that leadership is the single most important ingredient in major change.

From	To
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • culture of growth • emphasis on hierarchy, rank, authority • compliance with rules • closed system - lack of accountability • internal solidarity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • culture of restraint • emphasis on development - creativity, adaptiveness • challenging assumptions, questioning procedures • openness, communication, ownership of outcomes • external professionalism

Table 3

The community policing philosophy implies changes in the structure of police organizations. Decision-making will need to be decentralized to a level where the policing needs of the community can best be met. Force structures may need to change to allow for greater flexibility in work arrangements. Training and education programs will be required to develop skills in planning and communicating with community representatives. Officers will need to have an in-depth understanding of the nature and problems of the communities in which they work and be encouraged to take responsibility for initiating problem-solving efforts. Realistic problem-solving goals and strategies will need to be formulated

with community groups, and performance criteria set for assessing officers on their ability to work with the community.

As well as changes in the strategies and structure of police organizations, community-based policing implies changes in police culture and leadership. It requires a fundamental reorientation from a narrow focus on crime-fighting through rapid mobilized response (after the fact reactive), to a broad focus on community security and protection through joint problem-solving and collaboration (before the fact proactive policing). This requires an outwardly-directed culture of professionalism that challenges police to marshal the efforts of the majority of citizens who are the "good guys", rather than turning inward and focusing on the minority who are the "bad guys" and forgetting that most people are on our side.

The responsibility for initiating and supporting the changes required to move to a community policing approach falls primarily on police managers and executives. It will be a difficult and long-term process requiring great skill and perseverance. It will require a loosening of the autocratic management style to allow for participation and creativity. It will require increased communication and interpersonal skill in working both with the public and with subordinates. And it will require the imagination and inspiration that is the hallmark of good leadership.

Without these, most large organizations that have attempted major transitions have not been successful. In the private sector, they have tended to stagnate, to be bought up by other, more aggressive companies, or simply to go out of business⁶. In the public sector, going out of business is not at issue. As a result, large bureaucracies become "stuck" in outdated traditions, losing business to private competitors and suffering from an eroding public image. There are a number of signs that this is becoming the case in police bureaucracies.

Transition frequently produces unnecessary negative consequences since insufficient management attention is directed at leading the organization through change. Leaders must have the skills and attributes to initiate and sustain major organizational change.

The Leader's Role In Change

In the face of the challenges of change and renewal, executives in both the private and public sectors are turning their attention to the role of leaders, as distinct from that of managers. Managers are “pathminders”, emphasizing adherence to procedures through detailed directives, and leaving the organization much the same way as they found it. Leaders, on the other hand, are “pathfinders”, emphasizing change and innovation through building and focusing commitment, leaving the organization much different than they found it and hopefully much better able to meet the demands of the future.

If police organizations are to change and if community policing is to work, we will need police leaders rather than police managers. We will need a fundamental shift in our traditional management functions and styles:

From

- bureaucratic management
- administrative management
- maintenance management
- management of others

To

- strategic management
- people management
- change management
- management of self

Table 4

1. From Bureaucratic Management to Strategic Management

Bureaucratic Management

Bureaucratic management involves managing from the “inside out”, tending to focus on the needs of the bureaucracy itself rather than its clients; as car manufacturer Henry Ford once said: “You can have any colour of car you want, as long as it’s black”.

**Strategic
Management**

Strategic management, on the other hand, involves managing from the “outside in”, focusing attention on the needs of the broader community and adapting the organization so that it provides the most effective service to its clients. In recent advertisements, Xerox corporation proclaimed to its customers: “We answer to you”.

Moving to a strategic management focus will require police leaders to have a thorough, hands-on knowledge and understanding of the complex, diverse problems and needs of their communities. They must seek to be informed and to inform, both listening and communicating continuously, with a wide variety of constituents. Leaders develop broad networks of people who know and trust them, and spend a good deal of their time staying in touch. They use these networks to gather strategic information and use their influence to solve problems and conflicts. Police leaders can, in this way, be true “partners” in the community.

Leaders also use their understanding of the community to anticipate possible problems and take advantage of possible opportunities. For example, one author speaks of “identifying fracture lines”, areas of potential risk or concern, and positioning the organization for response. In a community, this might mean a strategy of directed patrol or a mini-station in an area where problems are anticipated. It would mean negotiating settlements of problems before they occur, rather than responding with enforcement activity after they occur. Taking advantage of opportunities might mean leading community groups or participating in public education.

The purpose of managing from the “outside in” is to allow the leader to formulate appropriate long-term goals and strategies for providing service. The goals of policing have historically been unclear, making it difficult to know which strategies to choose. Traditionally the police, as experts, have identified the problems and applied the existing organization to them. Understanding the broad needs and problems of the community provides the basis on which overall goals and strategies for service can be set. It provides for the design of an organization and strategies which fit the problems, rather than the existing structure. The needs of the community supply the common frame of reference, the shared sense of what is important and what the organization is trying to achieve. Community policing recognizes the critical role of the com-

munity in the business of policing. The goal is therefore to establish a partnership between the police and the community that best serves their mutual interest in security and protection.

It is the leader's role, then, to translate this broad goal into particular organizational strategies based on the needs of the specific community being served. These strategies are a "frame for action", a sense of direction that brings people together and provides guidelines. The strategies should be open enough to encourage flexibility and innovation and yet coherent and ordered enough to give a clear sense of where the organization is going. For example, police leaders can develop an overall plan for the transition to community policing using the principles outlined previously and customizing them to meet the needs and capabilities of their community and their organization.

The Leader Is The Environment

Leaders also play a critical role in reinforcing the strategies through their own behaviour. One author has written "the leader is the environment": leaders provide the model for others and must be consistent in encouraging and rewarding people's efforts. For instance, sergeants set the tone for patrol officers and can influence officers' behaviour by the example they set. If they are committed to enhancing a patrol officer's role and status and recognizing its potential contribution to the police function, they must demonstrate this commitment by rewarding new ideas, providing training, and encouraging broader community involvement. Patrol officers will in turn take greater initiative in working to solve community problems.

2. From Administrative Management to People Management

This leads to the second shift in management function, moving from a concentration on administrative management to a concentration on people management. Administrative management is concerned with planning, organizing, budgeting and controlling. People management concerns motivating, developing, coordinating and empowering. We will need all of these people management skills to accomplish a transition in policing.

Fundamental change is not brought about by single leaders. Change requires teams of committed people working together to achieve common purposes. Leaders harness and focus people's energy by involving

them in strategic decision-making, providing opportunities for increasing knowledge and skills and by making their staff responsible for playing a part in achieving the organization's goals. In other words, they make work challenging by drawing on the full talents and enthusiasm of all those who have a stake in the outcome.

Leaders pull others toward their goals rather than pushing them on. The changes necessary in policing, changes in organizational goals and strategies, cannot be achieved simply by edict or coercion. The traditional command and control model must give way to a more participative style. Police leaders must build commitment to the changes by permitting and motivating everyone to participate in them. As one writer states:

Leaders give up a measure of control in order to gain control over what counts: results. When people are treated as the main engine rather than interchangeable parts of the corporate machine, motivation, creativity, quality, and commitment to implementation well up⁷.

People management includes the public as well as members of police organizations. Police leaders must foster increased public involvement in decision-making, education, and taking joint responsibility for community problems. Consultation and collaboration with community leaders and citizens in setting strategies and developing plans of action creates a sense of shared accountability for community vitality and quality of life.

3. From Status Quo Management to Change Management

The management of change is the core of the leader's role. Where managers are concerned with maintaining the status quo, leaders are concerned with changing it. Change in our wider environment is rapid and continuous, exceeding anything we have experienced before. If police organizations are to remain effective in this turbulent world, they must also be able to adapt. It is the responsibility of police leaders to spearhead change. One management theorist writes,

So now the chief job of the leader, at all levels, is to oversee the dismantling of dysfunctional old truths and to prepare people and organizations to deal with change ... per se⁸.

Policing may be a long way from “thriving on chaos” but it must certainly recognize that change is a necessary and normal part of today’s organizations, and not a cause for alarm⁹.

The leaders’ role is to envision the new out of the old, understanding the constraints and opportunities offered up by the past and fitting the demands of the future with them. Leaders are “social architects”, using strategies, technologies, structure and culture as tools to shape and change the way the organization works. So, the role of police leaders in making the transition to community policing is to carefully examine traditional strategies and practices in light of current demands and future needs, and to shape a program for change using all the organizational tools at their disposal.

Reflection-in-action

Managing change also requires us to learn more and faster than ever before. As the pace of change speeds up, so does the amount of new information that we must deal with daily just to keep up. Leaders must be quick learners, taking in large amounts of new information routinely from a wide variety of sources and making judgements and decisions based on it, often without time for quiet thought and consideration. This requires developing a critical eye for sifting out what is important and being able to incorporate it into everyday activities, what one author refers to as “reflection-in-action”.

Police leaders, for example, are confronted with a vast array of information from their communities, their organizations, and the wider environment. They must draw out the trends, issues and priorities in this information and integrate them in an ongoing way into shaping strategy, exercising influence, and initiating change.

4. From Management of Others to Management of Self

Finally, the traditional management function has been concerned with the supervision and control of others. The leadership function, however, is concerned with understanding strengths and weaknesses, and being prepared to challenge and change them. If we as leaders want others to follow in new directions, we must begin by changing ourselves. We must model and reinforce new ways of behaving through our own example and loosen the reins of management enough so that others can be self-managing.

Research has shown us that personal attributes of intelligence, courage, integrity, confidence and stamina are great strengths of leaders. It has also shown us that in times of change, other attributes are required. One of these is the ability to be flexible and adaptable to changing situations. Leaders in change must be able to deal with the conflicts and contradictions inherent in moving from the old to the new, finding creative solutions to organizational dilemmas. One such dilemma is requiring people to follow regulations while expecting them to take greater initiative. How much of each and under what circumstances will need to be worked out in creative ways.

Another attribute that is important to leaders in change is the ability to be a "critical thinker", to challenge assumptions and to question the prevailing wisdom. We have tended to rely on past patterns of experience to guide us, rather than questioning them and searching for new options that may better suit current circumstances. In change, we need to bring this critical perspective to our traditional assumptions and beliefs, and be prepared to change those that do not fit. We can no longer be content because we have "always done it that way," rather, we must challenge the status quo to ensure its relevance or to create new ways. It is also increasingly recognized that the leader in change cannot be a "lone ranger". Leaders need the commitment and cooperation of others, they must be team players, because it takes the whole team to accomplish the goals. We need each other to make it work.

Conclusion

In a recent book entitled *Necessary Losses*, the author discusses the developmental stages in life and how, at each stage, we must deal with necessary losses in order to grow¹⁰. These losses involve giving up some of our illusions, dependencies and expectations in order to better understand ourselves, our choices and our possibilities. We have to learn to let go of some of the illusions we hold in order to move on to the next stage of our development.

This notion of “necessary losses” can be applied to the stages of development of police organizations and leadership as well. Policing is very young by professional standards, really only in its “infancy” at the turn of the century, and only starting its “adolescent” growth as recently as the 1960’s.

Moving through these early stages required some necessary losses. We have had to give up the simplicity of earlier times in favour of increasingly complex organization structures, more sophisticated communications technology, and the recognition that we are becoming more remote from the daily lives of our constituents. In return, we have developed and adapted to meet the needs of our communities in an era of rapid growth and change.

Events and expectations today seem to be forcing policing into a new stage in which we must confront the realities of organizational upheaval and social complexity. They underline that some necessary losses involving a new way of thinking about change and the police leader’s role must occur.

Getting Back to Normal

To consider the current forces for change as a temporary aberration, a “glitch” that must be dealt with until things get back to normal, is an illusion. If it were so, today’s challenges could be dealt with by making minor adjustments to old ways of doing things; if ignored, the call for change might go away and not need to be dealt with at all. Sorry! That is simply not the case.

It is necessary to think of change as a way of life: the new “normal”. In this state of affairs we question deepest philosophies and assumptions

and rethink our organizational strategies, structures and leadership roles. Not only that, but we must go on doing so at regular intervals in response to the every-changing nature of our communities. Change is here to stay: it cannot be resisted or ignored. The challenge for police leadership is to anticipate and shape change, and to inspire in others a change.

Learning is what you do in school

A second illusion is the notion that learning is what you do in school. In this view, people learn most of what they need to know when they are young. Once on the job, however, they are expected to follow orders and procedures without much need for ongoing learning and education. In fact, people who are too inquisitive or presumptuous are seen as misfits in the culture and are encouraged to either conform or leave the organization.

In reality, the faster things change, the more rapidly and continuously we must learn if we are to keep pace. The ability to learn is perhaps the most important skill in turbulent times and yet is one of the most under-used. Recognizing this requires us to see learning as something we do every day of our lives, “on-line”; that is, built into the very fabric of the police organization and the roles of each member of the force. The challenge to leadership at every level is to test existing assumptions, think critically about ways of doing things, and find new and innovative solutions to complex problems.

We have always done it this way

Another assumption is that “the way we’ve always done it around here” is the most effective way in the future. This implies that organizations have fixed structures; that we will not be surprised, that events can be predicted and controlled, that we can be assured that the future is more or less like the past.

Letting go of this view requires us to recognize that external events cannot always be predicted or controlled. Organization structures must be able to adapt to changing circumstances in ways that are not the same as they have been in the past. We must expect surprises and learn how to deal with them. We must look forward to a future where “the way we’ve always done it” is not necessarily a guide to the way it should be done now. The challenge for police leadership is to create an ap-

appropriate balance between stability and change, holding to long-term values and goals which are still valid, while allowing for flexibility and creativity in the short run, a kind of “stability in motion”.

The experts have the answer

In our large police bureaucracies, we have come to rely and depend on the knowledge and advice of our experts. Very often these are specialists in a variety of technical areas within the force. The problem is that being successful as a specialist does not necessarily equip an officer with the skills needed to be a manager.

Changing our views about specialists requires us not to ignore expert advice but to use it appropriately, as an added perspective on a problem or a potential solution.

It should not be assumed that expertise or professional competence in a particular type of police work automatically produces an effective leader.

Finding the quick fix

Finally, there is the illusion that just around the corner is the “quick fix” to all our problems; that by some small miracle or stroke of good luck, a simple and easy answer will be found. In this view, it is very tempting to cure the symptom rather than the problem itself, applying “band-aid” treatments to fundamental issues that require major surgery.

One of the necessary losses of living in a complex world is accepting that there are no easy answers, no quick fixes for complicated problems, no miracle cures. Instead, we must come to grips with long-term change, recognizing that it will require perseverance, resilience and imagination. It will be hard work and there are no shortcuts, but the rewards will include more adaptable organizations, more involved constituents and more flexible and responsible police officers.

The critical lever for accomplishing long-term change is leadership; the question is - how ready, willing and able are police leaders to take up the challenge.

We are living and working in very exciting times that require us to be the best that we can be, to build on what we know and do well, and to recognize and act on new choices and possibilities. The challenge to police leaders is to think critically about these ideas. To what extent do

they fit your own experience? How can you use and adapt them in thinking about your own role and how that role might change in the future? What are your “necessary losses” in thinking this way, and what are the potential gains? And what can you do now to improve your organization and leadership for turbulent times?

That policing is changing is surely a given. The change can be positive or negative. It can be created by others or it can be shaped by police practitioners together with their constituents. Obviously, the latter position makes the most sense, but only modern police leaders can make that happen. That is why leaders must lead from the front, recognizing what the future can be, and shaping the police organization and its members to impact positively on society.

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COMMUNITY POLICING

Shaping the Future

NEIGHBOURHOOD FOOT PATROL



Ministry of the
Solicitor General and
Correctional Services

Ontario

Neighbourhood Foot Patrol

What it is and How to do it

Ministry of the Solicitor General
and Correctional Services of Ontario
and
Ministry of the Solicitor General
of Canada

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Preface

Neighbourhood Foot Patrol was prepared under contract for the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada by Joseph Hudson, University of Calgary, Joseph P. Hornick of the Canadian Research Institute for Law and the Family and Chris Braiden, formerly of the Edmonton Police Service.

This report is part of a series of manuals on community policing produced jointly by the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario and the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada. The objective of the series is to provide information on the implementation of community policing, focusing on planning, management processes, training and operational strategies. These reports are designed for use by all members of the police services, police services boards, community groups, students of policing/criminology, educational facilities, police college instructors, and government officials.

*Barry Leighton & Marsha Mitzak
Series Editors*

NOTE: The views expressed in this report are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario or the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada.

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J.P.H.

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Table of Contents

SECTION 1: TRADITIONAL POLICING AND THE NEED FOR INNOVATION	i
Problems of Policing	1
Purpose of This Manual	2
The Role of the Officer	3
Changing Our Views	4
SECTION 2: THE NEIGHBOURHOOD FOOT PATROL PROGRAM IN EDMONTON: A CASE EXAMPLE	6
Program Setting	6
Program Development	6
Program Description	7
Program Success	12
SECTION 3: IMPLEMENTING A NEIGHBOURHOOD FOOT PATROL PROGRAM	15
Program Development Activities	15
Personnel	18
Implementation Tasks	20
SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS	26

Section 1:

Traditional Policing and the Need for Innovation

Problems of Policing

Beginning in the 1930s, police services in North America began to rely on the motor vehicle and the two-way radio, placing less emphasis on foot patrol. Motor vehicles were seen to have the advantage of increasing the patrol area and officers could be more readily supervised by maintaining radio contact with headquarters. It was believed that motorized patrol would enable police officers to interrupt crimes in progress, apprehend more criminals and provide a greater sense of safety in the community.

As police forces grew, police managers turned to a military model for their organizational structure and discipline. Too often, this resulted in overemphasizing rules and regulations, without taking into account the valuable knowledge and experience of the officer on the street. The system stressed compliance rather than providing leadership or teaching and discouraged individual initiative and creativity.

Studies conducted in the 1960s on motorized patrol raised important issues for police managers.

- Only a small portion of police time was actually spent on crime-related matters and motor patrols seldom encountered a crime. A much greater amount of time was spent on public service activities and passive patrolling.
- Attempts to increase perceived police presence had little or no effect on crime rates.
- Crime, citizen attitudes, fear and arrests did not change in response to increases or decreases in levels of motorized patrol. Crime rates were not affected by "saturation" patrol; if such patrols reduced crime, it was only temporarily, largely by displacing it to other places.
- The effectiveness of rapid response to a call for service did not increase the likelihood of making an arrest when the tendency of the victim is to delay calling the police.

Current experiments with contemporary policing strategies, including:

- **Problem-oriented policing**, which involves a systematic approach to analysing community problems, organizing and targeting police resources to deal with specific problems and evaluation;
- **Crime prevention** initiatives in which crime risks are determined and measures for prevention put in place;
- **Management initiatives** in which authority for setting objectives is delegated to lower level managers;

caused some police managers to look to balancing motorized patrol with foot patrols.

Purpose of This Manual

The purpose of this manual is to identify the activities that must be achieved to successfully develop and implement a **neighbourhood foot patrol program**. The manual highlights a specific program implemented by the Edmonton Police Service. This information should, however, be useful in developing similar programs.

Neighbourhood Foot Patrol

Neighbourhood foot patrol is foot patrol in areas to which individual officers have been permanently assigned. In the course of patrolling the neighbourhood, officers develop an intimate knowledge of local conditions and specific skills in dealing with local problems.

The increased person-to-person contact with foot patrol officers provides opportunities for improving police/community relations. Knowing people on the beat means that officers can develop more sources of information and improve their understanding of community problems. Finally, an officer who is familiar with the physical characteristics of an area is able to anticipate potential problems.

Such a program can be a catalyst for encouraging citizen involvement, emphasizing self-help and establishing links with other community agencies. A neighbourhood foot patrol program can more effectively respond to the needs of the community by linking the police to the residents.

Traditional policing is essentially reactive. Officers patrol in cars responding to calls for service, dealing with situations, then moving on to the next call. Tour and assignment rotations are short and they do not permit officers to adopt long-range strategies to deal with recurring situations. Neighbourhood foot patrol, however, is a proactive approach to solving community problems. Officers are required not only to identify crime and

order maintenance problems within their beat area, but also to devise strategies to deal with them.

The Role of the Officer

The neighbourhood foot patrol officer's role includes (1) problem solving; (2) community development and (3) channelling information. It is essential that the officer be flexible to deal with a wide variety of situations.

Problem Solving

One of the first tasks of a neighbourhood foot patrol officer is to identify the problems experienced in the community. Officers should be expected to examine relevant statistical information, record observations as they patrol beats and obtain information from local residents and merchants. Problems can then be ranked and analyzed and corrective strategies designed.

A number of resources are available to the officer and these include:

- 1) other police officers patrolling to the area;
- 2) public and private service agencies operating or available to operate in the beat area;
- 3) individual citizens or community organizations in the beat area;
- 4) the neighbourhood foot patrol police themselves acting as law enforcement officers.

The officer's success in resolving the identified problems largely depends on his or her success in marshalling the appropriate resources and coordinating their application. Particular attention should be given to involving individual citizens and organizations, (e.g. social services) with less emphasis on traditional law enforcement activities.

Community Development

The foot patrol officer has a vital role to play in bringing the community together for the purpose of improving its quality of life. Increasing community awareness of its problems, involving citizens and organizations in developing strategies to address the problems and motivating people to help implement the strategies are all aspects of the job.

Channelling Information

Through their links to the community, neighbourhood foot patrol officers are able to provide the police force with information about problem conditions and locations, active criminals, networks for drugs and stolen property, citizen fears, and insight into citizen perception of police tactics. In turn, the neighbourhood foot patrol officer can provide citizens with technical information and advice for preventing crimes and reducing vulnerability, information about the police view of conditions in the neighbourhood, and strategies for addressing neighbourhood problems. This information exchange aspect of the neighbourhood foot patrol officer's role can result in arrests that might not otherwise occur, greater cooperation between the police and citizens in addressing order maintenance problems and a heightened sense among citizens that the police are a concerned and powerful resource for improving the quality of life in the community.

Changing Our Views

A number of changes are important for the successful implementation of community policing initiatives such as the neighbourhood foot patrol program:

1. The basic unit of work in policing must change from "responding to a call" to "solving a problem". An analysis of 153,000 calls for service (CFS) in Edmonton proved that a large percentage of calls were repeats. In one grid of 1,000 addresses, 58 percent of all CFS came from repeat calls to 21 addresses. Police increasingly recognize that individual CFS cannot be viewed as **unique** and **separate**, but rather as **symptoms** of a deeper, recurring problem. If solving a problem becomes the goal, this, in turn, will determine how the calls are handled.
2. The criteria for police action becomes what is best for the community and individual neighbourhoods. This means that decisions are not made in isolation at police headquarters, but in consultation with the community.
3. This emphasis on the community rather than on the police institution means encouraging the concept of "ownership"; ownership between an individual police officer and his/her neighbourhood. When an officer is assigned to a neighbourhood on a full-time basis, that officer takes an interest in that particular community. There is motivation to try to address its problems. People will learn to need and depend on each other. When an issue is not dealt with today, all must face it tomorrow. Pleasing customers, even if for personal reasons, will become part of the police way of doing things.

4. Good police work depends on information. Not surprisingly, the people who know the most about crime in a neighbourhood are those who live in the areas. Studies have shown that when leads have been provided by victims or witnesses, the clearance rate is approximately 85 percent. Conversely, when police do not have leads, success rates drop to about 8 percent. Clearly, citizens can be an invaluable resource and most are quite willing to share information with the police. The police must learn to work effectively with the community.
5. Three-quarters of the area of most cities do not require extensive policing but the remaining quarter needs a lot. In any city, there are "hot spots" which must be the focus of police activity. The police and the community must turn their attentions to understanding and dealing with the problems of specific neighbourhoods.
6. Officers must realize that cities are collections of villages with unique personalities and problems requiring unique solutions.

Section 2:

The Neighbourhood Foot Patrol Program in Edmonton:

A Case Example

Program Setting

The Edmonton Police Service includes four operational divisions, with each division being responsible for general policing services to one of four city quadrants. Each division contains a police station. Three stations are independently located, but the Division "D" station is located in the Police Headquarters building in downtown Edmonton.

When the Neighbourhood Foot Patrol Program (NFPP) was implemented, there were 1092 police officers and 279 support staff employed by the service. Approximately 140 police officers were assigned to each of the four divisions; the remainder were assigned to special areas, such as Traffic or Records. The Edmonton Police Service provided virtually all policing service for the City of Edmonton, from enforcing minor municipal bylaws to conducting criminal investigations. Edmonton has a population of over 605,000.

Program Development

Over the past decade, changes at the Edmonton Police Service have followed a number of paths. Various projects and strategies have been initiated in many areas, including operational policing, information systems and crime prevention. Meaningful change has resulted, but it has centred primarily on the support functions of policing. Until the development of the NFPP, no projects focusing on the basic functions of policing had been implemented and evaluated.

Traditionally, the Edmonton Police Service officers dealt with calls for service by responding quickly, recording and investigating, laying charges if appropriate, then going to the next call for service. Only periodically were plans made to deal with the underlying problems. These plans sometimes involved the Crime Prevention or the Victim Services Officer, but the problems were not consistently recognized as recurring and dealt with as such.

Recognizing the need to move away from this reactive model of policing, the service decided to place officers in the neighbourhoods where repeat problems originated. Each individual officer was encouraged to use his/her own initiative in recruiting citizens to assist in mobilizing the local community to solve problems.

In 1987, the Edmonton Police Service made plans to incorporate the philosophy and implement the practice of community policing. As a result, the NFPP was designed to provide this service to 21 neighbourhood areas in the city. Concurrent with the implementation of the NFPP, an 18 month evaluation study was conducted. Much of the information below is based on the evaluation study. Therefore, this case example describes only the start-up year of the NFPP.

During this time the overall approach employed by the majority of Edmonton Police Service officers consisted of uniformed officers in marked cars providing traditional policing services. The NFPP was designed as a pilot project, to provide the opportunity for the implementation and evaluation of the community policing concept.

Program Description

The NFPP is best described by dividing program elements into the four categories of goals, objectives, strategies and structural components. Table 1 presents the elements as they relate to these four categories.

1. Goals

The primary goal of the Edmonton NFPP is to prevent crime and improve the quality of life. This requires consideration of issues that are associated with crime, such as poverty, racism, anger, etc. The second goal is to provide proactive policing services that involve solving problems rather than simply reporting incidents. The third goal of the NFPP is to provide a service that is community-based rather than simply based on criminal justice, that is, one that involves the community in identifying and solving problems. Thus, NFPP police officers act as community team leaders in identifying problems that damage the quality of life, then work through the community as a whole to find and apply solutions to those problems.

TABLE 1:
**COMPONENTS OF THE EDMONTON NEIGHBOURHOOD
FOOT PATROL PROGRAM¹:**

GOALS	OBJECTIVES	STRATEGIES	STRUCTURAL COMPONENTS
Crime Prevention	Reduce repeat calls for service	Target services to "hot spots"	Foot patrol
			Store-front offices
Proactive Policing	Improve public satisfaction with police	Decentralization	Community liaison committees
Involvement with the Community	Increase job satisfaction of police officer	Increase police visibility	Volunteer programs
		Increase autonomy and problem solving of officers	Problem solving by officer
		Involve community in defining problems	
		Involve community in solving problems	
		Increase officer knowledge of community	

¹ This table does not attempt to relate strategies and structural components directly to specific goals and objectives.

2. Objectives

The NFPP was designed to achieve the specific objectives discussed below:

- **To reduce the number of repeat calls for service.**

Successful achievement of this objective involves both reducing the number of repeat calls arising from, and subsequent dispatches to, a particular address and/or reducing the overall number of repeat calls in a beat area.

- **To improve public satisfaction with the police.**

This objective involves increasing the positive attitude of citizens toward both the police officer and the service provided to the community.

- **To increase the job satisfaction of the officer.**

The program was designed to promote both a sense of commitment to the neighbourhood and a sense of ownership of neighbourhood problems by the foot patrol officers. This sense of ownership, combined with autonomy and the opportunity to try new approaches to policing is also intended to increase job satisfaction.

- **To increase the reporting of intelligence.**

Foot patrol officers spend a significant proportion of their working hours getting to know the people in their foot patrol areas. It follows that they would be able to access more information about suspects and suspicious activity on a day-to-day basis than would officers providing more traditional, intermittent motor patrol service to that area.

- **To solve community problems.**

A substantial variety of community problems exist in the foot patrol areas. These include prostitution, substance abuse by minors, parking problems, juvenile crime, family disputes, theft, break and enter, and alcohol and drug-related violence. It was hoped that foot patrol officers would have some impact on reducing the severity and occurrence of such problems.

3. Strategies

The program strategies include the following:

- **To target police services to "hot areas".**

In selecting the 21 foot patrol areas, a lengthy procedure was undertaken to identify "hot spot" areas. The computer information system was used to identify areas that experienced high volumes of crime/incident occurrences, repeat addresses, dispatched calls, and dispatched units.

- **To decentralize the service.**

Each officer operates out of a store-front office located within the beat area. Store-fronts were established to promote officer autonomy and identification with the community.

- **To increase police visibility.**

Increasing police visibility enables community members to become accustomed to having a foot patrol officer in their neighbourhood. It should increase community involvement in identifying and solving specific problems and increase the gathering of intelligence. Foot patrol officers walk large portions of their beats virtually every working day.

- **To increase officers' autonomy and problem solving ability.**

The more autonomous the foot patrol officers are as members of the police force, the more likely they are to depend on community members rather than fellow officers for support. They are also likely to spend more time interacting with community members.

- **To involve the community in defining problems.**

The officers have day-to-day contact with neighbourhood residents and business people, which promotes communication about issues of concern. For example, a business owner is more likely to tell a foot patrol officer about a suspicious group of juveniles that have been loitering outside the business premises than to make a formal complaint to the police force.

- **To involve the community in solving problems.**

The resources of community members are assumed to be beneficial to the foot patrol officer in solving problems. By involving the community in problem solving, citizens are given the message that some of the responsibility for crime prevention rests with them.

- **To increase officers' knowledge of the community.**

This strategy goes hand-in-hand with many of the others. An officer who is familiar with the foot patrol area should be better able to identify community members to help in the problem solving process.

4. Structural Components

The structural components of the NFPP program were developed to put the above strategies into action. They include the following:

- **An officer assigned to patrol a small geographic area primarily on foot.**

Foot patrol is intended to promote police visibility, to increase the officer's knowledge of, and adaptation to, the community and to promote community involvement in problem solving.

- **A store-front office in each foot patrol area.**

Store-front offices are intended to decentralize police service, promote community involvement, provide a place for volunteers to work, and to make the officer accessible to the community.

- **Community liaison committees.**

The committees, usually informal, are composed of key players in the community and are organized to promote community ownership of problems.

- **Volunteers**

Volunteers are recruited both to encourage community involvement and to share some of the officer's workload.

- Use of a specific problem solving strategy by the officer.

Problem solving involves problem identification, identification of various alternatives for long-term solutions and implementation of the most appropriate solutions.

Program Success

In order to assess the success of the Edmonton NFPP, the Solicitor General of Canada funded a quantitative evaluation of the program. The Canadian Research Institute for Law and the Family collected information for over 14 months and prepared a comprehensive technical report, "An Evaluation of the Neighbourhood Foot Patrol Program of the Edmonton Police Service" (Hornick et al., 1990). The key findings of this study are summarized below:

- The program was successfully implemented.
- Overall, the program was successful in that the five program objectives were accomplished to a significant degree.
- The program as originally conceived was particularly applicable to residential settings as opposed to the downtown areas.
- The problem-solving component of the program worked well in the downtown areas. The other components however, were not well suited to this non-residential setting.

The process analysis of this study suggests a number of reasons why this program was successful.

- The program was well planned.
- The program was targeted to specific areas through identification of "hot spots".
- Implementation of the program was well planned. Implementation on a small scale made it manageable and observable.
- Officers were well chosen. Officers were experienced and well respected in the police system and were committed to the program.
- Ownership of the program was transferred to the service as a whole and integrated with regular policing approximately 6 to 8 months after it began.

Conclusions based on each component of the program are presented below.

Foot Patrol

Implementing the program in targeted high crime rate areas was very useful. The visibility of the officers and their direct contact with residents of the area increased the officers' knowledge of the community and its problems. This has contributed to both a reduction in the number of calls for service, as well as to improved citizen satisfaction with the police, increased autonomy and problem solving of the officers and increased job satisfaction.

Store-front Offices

Store-front offices appear to be useful in residential areas. However, public access should not be limited by the fact that the foot patrol officer is not in the office. Volunteers may be useful for maintaining extended office hours.

In downtown areas, the store-fronts appear to be used more as mini police stations. While this is not consistent with the original plan of the program, it appears to be appropriate for the downtown areas.

Community Liaison Committees

The community liaison committees seem to be the least effective component of the NFPP. There is little indication of substantial effort being put forth to develop the committees as they were proposed. In the downtown areas, it appears that the concept of "community" must be applied more broadly. Therefore, this component was even less successfully implemented in the downtown areas.

Volunteers

The use of volunteers was not initially accepted by the officers. Therefore, the effective use of volunteers varied considerably from neighbourhood to neighbourhood. In the downtown areas, there was very little use of volunteers because of the potentially high risk situations.

Problem Solving

There is substantial evidence that creative approaches to problem solving in communities were adopted by the NFPP officers. While it is difficult to conceptualize the "problem solving approach", the evidence points to increased use of this approach as opposed to an "enforcement" method. The major drawback to the problem-solving approach is that some officers seemed to be overwhelmed by the responsibility of solving the complex problems in communities by themselves.

Section 3:

Implementing A Neighbourhood Foot Patrol Program

This section of the manual will focus on the key activities or tasks that must be accomplished in order to successfully implement a NFPP based on the evaluation of the Edmonton NFPP outlined in Section 2. Additional information, however, has been taken from the literature. In broad terms, the activities outlined below can be divided into three general areas: (1) program development activities; (2) personnel activities and (3) implementation tasks.

Program Development Activities

It is essential that all program development activities be completed before personnel are hired and implementation begins. A well designed program, supported by key decision makers, provides the foundation for the implementation of a successful program.

Securing the Support of Key Decision Makers

The key decision makers needed for support of an innovation such as a neighbourhood foot patrol program are the business community, political decision makers and senior management within the police service itself. A strategy to determine how these decision makers will be approached and the kind of active or passive support desired from them needs to be developed. Key steps may include the following:

- Involving a cross-section of respected police officers in planning the program.
- Providing information on the proposed program to police officers at roll calls, social events, etc.
- Providing information on the proposed program to key officials outside the service, such as police commission members, city council members, influential business persons and media representatives to begin to develop an awareness of the program concept and provide support for it.
- Using consultants from other police services experienced in the use of neighbourhood foot patrol programs, particularly consultants who can speak knowledgeably about practical experiences.
- Providing opportunities for members of the force at all levels to develop a sense of ownership of the program through participating in its design, implementation and supervision.

Developing a Concise Program Description

As is the case with the program description of the Edmonton NFPP in Section 2, the program goals, objectives, strategies for accomplishing objectives and components of the program should all be specified. This description should also be consistent with the innovative strategies discussed in Section 2.

Once the program description is finalized, it is important to prepare a job description outlining the range of work to be carried out by the neighbourhood foot patrol officer. This job description should precisely define the new and different role to be played by the officers as problem solvers, community organizers and collectors of information. Some specific components that might be included are as follows:

- To be responsible for initial response and investigation of all types of calls for service.
- To check all calls for service coming from the beat since last working.
- To respond to all telephone messages received at the store-front office and do the necessary follow-up work.
- To be completely familiar with the profile of the foot patrol area.
- To act as a community team leader and facilitator in identifying and applying solutions to community problems.
- To eliminate the causes of repeat calls for service.
- To identify, recruit and organize volunteers to staff the store-front office.
- To attend neighbourhood meetings and contribute as appropriate.

It can be seen that in this job description the officer is not presented as an authority figure or enforcer but rather as one who provides assistance, and shares the citizens' concern for safety. Such an officer can organize and motivate community groups and facilitate and coordinate corrective efforts at problem solving.

Targeting "Hot Spot" Areas

Another important preliminary activity is to target service where it will do the most good. In the case of the Edmonton NFPP, the police occurrence information system was used to identify the neighbourhoods where repeat calls for service to specific addresses were common. Since the program was focused on residential services, shopping malls were excluded.

For the purpose of identifying high activity areas, the following information was examined:

- 1) total number of occurrences in each location or grid;
- 2) total number of calls for service to repeat addresses in each grid;
- 3) total number of dispatched calls for service in each grid; and
- 4) total number of dispatched units to each grid.

Pockets of intense activity were then determined by correlating this information (occurrence locations, repeat calls for service, dispatched calls for service, and total number of units actually dispatched). Each grid was then ranked from lowest to highest according to the total score on the four categories. The analysis of this information revealed that a high percentage of activity was confined within a small percent of the grids. For example, 74 percent of total calls for service originated from a small number of repeat addresses.

This type of analysis revealed 47 grids or areas of the city had high occurrence rates. Eleven of the 47 grids contained large shopping centres where shoplifting, theft from automobiles, credit card offenses and false alarms were most common. In the remaining 36 grids, occurrences were not necessarily high in any specific category but included a variety of activities such as family disputes, assaults, breaking and entering, thefts, drug and liquor offenses, disturbances, and robberies. The foot patrol beats were eventually built around these high activity areas.

Like all aspects of planning, flexibility and adjustments are needed as implementation proceeds. In the case of boundary-setting decisions, for example, adjustments will likely need to be made when workload turns out to be larger or smaller than initially anticipated.

Once the beat patrol boundaries are identified and agreement reached with significant officials within and outside the police service, summary information on each neighbourhood ("neighbourhood profiles") can be prepared to help the foot patrol officers become more knowledgeable about their beat areas and thus aid them in planning and problem solving. These neighbourhood profiles can contain such information as: (1) repeat call addresses within the beat area, listed from lowest to highest occurrence rates; (2) occurrence dates; (3) complainant's name; (4) offence codes; (5) description of offenses; (6) demographic information, including age composition of beat area, unemployment rates, education levels, family size and (7) detailed maps of the area.

Personnel

Once the program design is finalized and areas chosen for foot patrol officers, several personnel tasks must be completed. At this stage of the program initiation, it must be ensured that the right people get to the right places.

Recruitment and Selection

Selection of the right persons for the foot patrol program is critical. The foot patrol officers are out in the community interacting with citizens. If they are bored or unhappy with the job, community residents will know. If the wrong persons are selected for the program, the program will quickly deteriorate and lose important public support.

Experience is important in most lines of work but absolutely critical in staffing a foot patrol program. Patrol officers should have experience in motorized patrol before joining a foot patrol program. Additionally, foot patrol officers should have strong interpersonal skills, be good listeners who are naturally sympathetic toward citizens and their problems, and have confidence in dealing with people. Foot patrol officers should also be able to express themselves well, be natural organizers and motivated problem solvers.

There are several tasks in staffing a foot patrol program. The first task is advertising and recruiting potential foot patrol officers, and soliciting volunteers for the program. Advertising for recruits can take the form of providing a simple handout that describes the proposed program, speaking to groups of officers about the planned program, and answering questions in a direct and clear manner. Second, after the applicants for the program have been identified they must be screened and the final group selected. Here, it is important to have clearly identified selection criteria and the involvement of a number of senior officers in the service. Finally, the selected foot patrol officers must be assigned to specific foot patrol areas. Again, it is critical that the division superintendents are involved in interviewing each officer and in making the appropriate assignments. As much as possible, attempts should be made to staff the beats from within the divisions. In this way, personnel moves across division boundaries and the disruptions these moves can cause will be minimized.

It is likely that there will be more applicants than positions in the program. It is therefore important that rejected applicants are clearly informed about how the selections were made, the difficulties experienced at making selection decisions and the possibility of being contacted again should vacancies occur in the future. Rejected applicants should also be informed that the applications reflect positively on their commitment to the service and that a copy of their applications will be included in their personnel files. Whenever possible they should be used to fill vacancies.

Orientation and Training

After the foot patrol officers have been selected, orientation and training sessions are scheduled at the inception of the program. Training materials are likely to vary from community to community, according to local conditions and the unique nature of the foot patrol work to be undertaken.

The Edmonton NFPP training program serves as a good model. It consisted of four days of classroom instruction, with training provided primarily by police service personnel with expertise in the area. Representatives from the local mediation society, social services, community health and government departments provided instruction in neighbourhood mediation and social service agencies in Edmonton and Alberta.

The sessions included the following topics:

- program philosophy, job description, job functions;
- data analysis and selection of the foot patrol areas;
- data collection (complaint handling and dispatch system);
- neighbourhood organization;
- crime prevention;
- social service agencies in Edmonton and Alberta;
- neighbourhood mediation;
- multiculturalism;
- communication skills;
- ethics;
- informant development and control; and
- question and answer period.

The foot patrol officers were also instructed to read various materials on community policing including publications by Herman Goldstein and the publications of the National Foot Patrol Centre, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan.

During the first year of operation, ongoing training continued after the implementation of the program and included the following: (1) two full-day and two half-day information-sharing sessions for all foot patrol officers (these sessions provided the opportunity for the exchange of ideas, strategies and general information between the foot patrol officers); (2) one seminar on volunteer management for all foot patrol officers; and (3) foot patrol seminars for two of the supervising sergeants at the National Foot Patrol Centre in East Lansing, Michigan.

Supervision

One of the key elements of an effective neighbourhood foot patrol program is appropriate supervision. Traditionally, police services have relied on an extensive set of rules and procedures to define what officers should and should not do in various situations. In contrast, a neighbourhood foot patrol program requires a different form of supervision that is more facilitating and less bureaucratic in character.

While sergeants may need to continue reminding subordinates of departmental regulations, the emphasis must shift from a concern with controlling misbehaviour to a focus upon officers' knowledge and involvement in the community and the adequacy of their problem solving activities.

Emphasis needs to be given to helping officers prepare their workplans, identifying priority problems in the area, establishing goals for addressing these problems, and setting forth action strategies. These plans can then serve as a context within which the supervisory sergeant can encourage the officer's initiative, and assess the efforts and results achieved by that initiative.

This approach to supervision recognizes the diversity of problems, desires, and resources among different neighbourhood areas and permits taking account of that diversity in judging the performance of the officers. The supervisor must be fully familiar with the problems the officer is handling and how they are being handled. This calls for a highly interactive style of supervision, one in which the supervisor spends considerable time talking with the officer and with area residents.

Feedback from the community served should also play a role in the evaluation of officers' performance. Supervisors should be responsible for gathering this information and should include in their assessments the manner and extent to which officers have been instrumental in dealing with neighbourhood problems.

Implementation Tasks

When the program design is finalized, foot patrol officers have been chosen, initial training has been completed, and a supervisory system set up, the program may be implemented.

Setting up the Store-front Office

The first important implementation task is setting up the neighbourhood foot patrol office. This involves identifying potential store-front office locations, establishing suitable lease arrangements, identifying necessary furnishings and arranging for their acquisition. The choice of location is extremely important since all foot patrols begin and end at this office. The following criteria should be considered:

- consistently high pedestrian and vehicle traffic flow;
- close proximity to public transportation, public washroom facilities, telephone and taxi areas;
- high visibility and easy access at street level;
- sufficient office space; and
- close proximity to areas with a high number of calls for service.

In Edmonton, three possible locations in each neighbourhood foot patrol area were identified, along with the particular problems or concerns associated with each area. These sites were inspected in detail and meetings were arranged with the landlords to discuss terms and conditions of occupancy. A list of problems associated with each space was prepared and a decision was then made to occupy the selected premises. Following that decision, the relevant city department was involved to: (1) prepare the legal description of the premises; (2) determine the status of taxes owed or paid; (3) complete a land title search; (4) determine the identity and complete a security check on all shareholders, or owners, of the property; and (5) prepare a memorandum of agreement based on an approved format.

After office space has been obtained, signs need to be designed, purchased and installed, and furnishings need to be arranged. A standard sign was designed for use in each office of the Edmonton program. The sign included the service crest and the name of the particular foot patrol area.

In addition to the space and equipment requirement of the offices, volunteers can be used to provide various support functions. The duties of volunteers in a neighbourhood foot patrol program may vary, but most generally, include staffing the offices, answering phones, taking messages and completing routine office duties, whether or not the officer is working. A variety of ways can be used to identify volunteers, including contacting community colleges, seniors' apartments, volunteer action centres, and advertising in neighbourhood newspapers.

Each neighbourhood area will have different needs and uses for volunteers. Likewise, different officers will staff their beat offices and use their volunteers differently. The use of volunteers, however, is vital. It is critical that the beat offices are open for business

and that phone calls are handled personally and promptly. Recorded telephone messages do not encourage callers to use the services of the neighbourhood foot patrol program.

Communications with Motorized Officers

An important aspect of successfully implementing a foot patrol program involves the interaction between foot patrol officers, motorized officers and other units of the police service. Some foot patrol programs have begun with a great deal of antagonism between the foot patrol officers and the motorized officers. For example, some motorized officers have felt that the duties of foot patrol officers do not amount to "real police work", but involve relatively easy "public relations work". Steps can be taken to help neutralize and even prevent these views from arising:

- explain clearly the foot patrol program to all members;
- staff the foot patrol program with experienced officers who have served in motorized units and have credibility with other officers.

In addition, ensure that foot patrol officers **receive calls for service and** communicate directly with motorized officers. This will often help build mutual respect and further understanding between the two different units. As the foot patrol program is implemented, motorized officers will come to appreciate the extent to which the foot patrol officers make their job easier and safer and that they take the same types of calls for service. In some cases, motorized officers may find that a local foot patrol officer has identified a problem before it becomes critical.

When problems do become critical, motorized officers may find that the foot patrol officer has valuable information about the neighbourhood and the residents. Efforts must be made by foot patrol officers to inform motorized patrol officers about the program, the role it plays, and how it operates in relation to motorized patrols. Examples of ways to further this kind of understanding would be responding to calls, speaking about the foot patrol program at formal and informal police gatherings, directly asking motorized officers how the foot patrol officers can be of assistance and taking motorized officers on "walkalongs".

Another way to overcome misunderstanding between the motorized and foot patrol officers involves using motorized officers to relieve foot patrols during vacation and rotating officers between the different units over time.

All of these suggestions are aimed at breaking down the rigid separation of roles between the two kinds of units and furthering understanding about the common aims of providing an important police service to the community.

Communications Between Central Dispatch, Community Residents and Foot Patrol Officers

It is critical that central dispatch has clear guidelines about when it is appropriate to assign a call to a foot patrol officer. For example, if a call for service is within the foot patrol area and the officer is available, then the call should be referred to the foot patrol officer. If an emergency cannot be practically handled by the foot patrol officer, then it should be forwarded to the motorized units. All routine calls for service should automatically be assigned to the foot patrol officers to be handled as time and other duties permit.

Difficulties have arisen in foot patrol units where guidelines have not been clear and the role of the foot patrol officers has not been well defined and communicated. Also, difficulties have arisen when foot patrol officers' schedules were not communicated to central dispatch. Consequently, residents made calls for service to central dispatch, not to neighbourhood foot patrol offices, and central dispatch assigned the calls to motorized units. It is, therefore, very important that foot patrol officers respond to all calls in their foot patrol area if they are close enough to handle them and further, that there is coordination between the foot patrol officers and central dispatch, particularly as this means keeping central dispatch informed about foot patrol activities and work schedules.

A well-implemented foot patrol program depends on using a variety of methods to keep persons informed about police services. For example, there should be an active use of community **news media** and foot patrol officers should be constantly thinking about preparing items for **newsletters and brochures**. All members should have **business cards** for distribution and introductory letters should be prepared for distribution to community organizations. Attending community meetings can be another important way to communicate with community residents and to keep them informed about police services available through the foot patrol program.

Relating to the Community

A number of practical suggestions have been offered in a training handout prepared by Sergeant Keith P.J. Duggan of the Edmonton Police Service to assist the neighbourhood foot patrol officers in defining their job and relating it to the community. These are briefly listed below.

1. Get to Know the Community and Its Concerns

Police and citizens often hold stereotypes about each other that, unless broken down by non-threatening contacts, prevent either group from making effective use of the other.

Get to know the community and its concerns, and begin working to help resolve these concerns. This means getting out and walking and talking to the citizens.

- Speak with shop owners, building managers, patrons -- everybody who is part of the community. Ask what they see as being the priority problems in the neighbourhood; listen carefully.
- Contact agencies, schools and community workers and describe your role and responsibilities. Ask if they are willing to meet with you and share concerns and ideas on a regular basis.
- Set up regular rounds. Meet with area residents on a regularly scheduled basis, even if only to have coffee and visit.
- Walk the beat with purpose. Look as far down the street as you can -people live at street level. Greet everyone, or at least meet their eyes and nod. Look for patterns. Be aware of the psychological effects of wearing the uniform. Make a point of going where you are least comfortable.

2. Act as a Catalyst for Change

As the neighbourhood foot patrol officer, you should act as a catalyst for change and your contact and discretion with various persons concerned with the community helps to create the first step in bringing about that change.

- It is not enough to be aware of the problems and concerns, you must be seen to take action and get results. Nothing is too small for your efforts, whether it is giving out a traffic tag or an arrest warrant.
- Take seriously citizens' definitions of their problems, even when the problems they define might differ from the ones the police would identify for them. Give them assurances that you will be looking at ways to address the problems, and start working at solutions. Ask if you can use their names as contacts for information and advice and ask for the names of others you should talk with to learn more about the community.
- Always follow-up on charges and arrests by getting back to the person who identified the problem and telling them what happened.

3. The Reactive/Proactive Approach to Problem Solving

Always use at least a two-pronged approach to deal with a community problem. This will ensure that a problem that has already occurred will be addressed and, just as important, may help to prevent the problem from occurring again in the future.

- The first strategy is to take the direct action expected of the police by the community, i.e., deal with the symptom, or be **reactive**.
- The second strategy is to solve the problem by addressing the cause. In this way, you are taking a **proactive** approach to problem solving that may help to prevent the situation.

Beyond these suggestions, the role of the foot patrol officers will likely vary from one area to another because some areas require more patrolling while others require more community organizing and different forms of problem solving. Consequently, the role of the officer should be structured enough so they can be consistent in responding to neighbourhood needs, yet flexible enough that officers can respond to the uniqueness of their community.

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COMMUNITY POLICING

Shaping the Future

INTRODUCTION



Ministry of the
Solicitor General and
Correctional Services

Ontario



Community Policing

An introduction to the philosophy and principles
of community policing

Ministry of the Solicitor General
and Correctional Services of Ontario
and
Ministry of the Solicitor General
of Canada

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Preface

Introduction to the philosophy and principles of community policing was prepared by the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario.

This report is part of a series of manuals on community policing produced jointly by the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario and the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada. The objective of the series is to provide information on the implementation of community policing, focusing on planning, management processes, training and operational strategies. These reports are designed for use by all members of the police services, police services boards, community groups, students of policing/criminology, educational facilities, police college instructors, and government officials.

*Barry Leighton & Marsha Mitzak
Series Editors*

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Table of Contents

Introduction	1
The Movement Toward Community Policing	2
Community-Based Policing - Looking for a Definition	5
Community Policing Strategies	9
Future Issues	11

Introduction

Policing in Canada and specifically in Ontario has experienced gradual evolution. The most dramatic changes to our policing system have happened as the result of technological development. Throughout the century, automobiles, telecommunications and the use of the computer impacted on the day to day activities of officers. They did so by not only affecting police methodology, but also by changing the way in which management deployed its resources and evaluated officer and force performance.

The acquisition of modern technology did not necessarily lead to broader progressive changes. It did, however, succeed in providing fast and extensive police response to almost everyone who requested it.

The philosophy of policing as it emerged over the years was a combination of British and American ideas. The principles of Sir Robert Peel, the founder of modern day policing, were in place early in the century. Public accountability and public involvement with the police were stressed. Constables patrolled on foot, knew who lived and worked in their neighbourhoods and counted on the public's assistance in controlling local crime and order.

By the 1930's, technology developments had altered the police organization dramatically. In the United States in particular, radios, telephones and centralized communication centres were viewed by police managers as a way to control the corruptive relationship between the police and local political party organizations. Scientific management principles, the popular business management theories of the day, were adapted to further control the relationship between the public and the police.

In Canada, theories around centralized chain of command, narrow span of control and close supervision combined with the military background of most police leaders to become the basis for the "traditional" or "professional" model of police service.

This model created service delivery strategies which are characterized by the following:

- Incident Orientation - the primary operational focus of a force is to respond to particular incidents, calls, or events - not to related calls or incidents or the deeper problems that they represent.
- Reactive Orientation - The operation of the force is primarily mobilized and oriented to responding to events as they arise. Response capacity and capability are emphasized; little time and few resources are devoted to proactive or preventative measures.
- Limited Analysis - As response and officer availability are given operational priority, analysis and information gathering is limited to specific events, not broader analysis of the problems which precipitated the event.
- Limited Response - A narrow view of the police role means that the response to problems tends to be limited to standard law enforcement strategies.
- Means Over Ends - An emphasis on response efficiency has the inevitable result that little emphasis is placed on designing policing strategies to prevent, reduce or eliminate the problem. In other words, efficiency over effectiveness. (Dr. Christopher Murphy, 1990)

This approach to policing forms the basis of most current police operations.

The Movement Toward Community Policing

For some time now, policing across North America has been experiencing considerable pressure for sweeping change. Academics, government at all three levels, community leaders and police managers themselves have become part of a movement calling for change.

Common to each of the changes currently being recommended is the belief that effective policing can be achieved only when there is ongoing cooperation and partnership between the police and the public.

Research conducted during the 1970's in the US and Canada revealed that many of the strategies of the traditional model of police services have been less than effective. In summing up this large body of academic and police based research, one can conclude that the key strategies of random patrol and rapid response have had limited effect on crime and

the wide range of social order problems that police are called on to handle. Some of the findings of this research included the following:

Rapid response to all calls for service is an inappropriate basis for organizing an entire police force when life-threatening incidents or events in progress are routinely less than 4% of calls for service. Most victims call someone else first and most delay reporting the incident to the police on average for about 20 minutes. Consequently, shorter response times are unlikely to result in an increase in the number of offenders apprehended during the commission of their offences. However, ranking calls by their degree of urgency permits differential response, making better use of scarce policing resources.

Most crimes are solved on the basis of information provided by the victim or witnesses to the officer who first responds to the call. Crimes are seldom solved by subsequent investigation, with perhaps less than 3% of all cases solved through this means. Integrated teams of patrol and investigative teams, however, have the highest rate of success in clearing crimes reported to the police.

Random motorized patrol has not been found to deter potential criminals, reduce crime, provide a greater likelihood of apprehending offenders, or reduce the fear of crime. Moreover, random or preventive patrol intercepts only a small fraction of crimes in progress. Increasing patrol numbers will therefore have little or no impact on their effectiveness.

While saturation motorized patrol may reduce crime, it usually does so only temporarily and often displaces crime into other areas. Targeting "hot spots" of crime and applying problem solving techniques, however, reduces repeat calls for service from repeat addresses, thus reducing the overall level of crime and police work. (Visions, Solicitor General of Canada 1990)

Research into the status of community policing indicated that several Ontario forces have been working with community policing strategies for a number of years. This included efforts directed at community-based crime prevention, victim assistance, foot patrols and zone policing. There appeared, however, to be a number of factors common to each of the community policing experiments which over the long term would limit their success:

- The forces had adopted short term strategies (e.g. undirected foot patrol) which were not integrated into the main stream operational

- The forces had adopted short term strategies (e.g. undirected foot patrol) which were not integrated into the main stream operational activities and therefore viewed by most members of the forces as not part of the real business of policing. Such strategies were seen as merely add-on public relations exercises.
- No effective techniques had been developed to measure both the overall success of the strategies or the individual officer's performance.
- Existing management systems were not conducive to operating community policing. There was a need for decentralized decision making, open communication systems and promotional and employee development schemes which were creative and innovative.
- Responsibility for community policing was frequently shifted from senior management to very junior staff members.

Nonetheless, many of the community policing initiatives proved to be very effective in themselves. Proof of the success of the new tactics and strategies was found in the police research which indicated the following:

- Directed foot patrol was found to improve the relationship between police and citizens and to increase citizen cooperation with the police from an investigative standpoint.
- Across the country, crime prevention practitioners found that citizen fear can be substantially reduced by increasing the frequency and improving the quality of citizen-police interaction.
- Preventative action on the part of the police and the community has been effective, whether in the form of target hardening or social development, over both the short and long term.
- Street level enforcement regarding drug problems can significantly reduce criminal activity.
- Problem-oriented policing focusing on problem solving can be used to reduce criminal occurrences and repeat calls for service.

Community Policing - Looking for a Definition

Community policing is a multi-dimensional model from which changes in policing strategy, organizational structure and organizational culture can occur.

These comprehensive changes are needed if we are to see the long term survival of new policing strategies. Community policing is not a special program to be added to the way policing is conducted today and it is not a new crime prevention or community service project. The adoption of community policing should be seen as a transition from the traditional or "professional" model of police services to a contemporary one.

Community policing provides a framework for change and transformation in all police organizations. This integrated process of change focuses on the kinds of services policing offers. It focuses on the way the organization is designed to carry out its policing strategies and the way it is managed. Finally, it focuses on the attitudes, values and behaviour of the organization, both internally and externally.

At the core of community policing is the concept of a police/community partnership. The partnership principles of community policing recognize the crucial role of the community in the business of policing. In this model, the public plays an influential part in the development of policy, the design of policing strategies and when appropriate, participates actively in the implementation of those strategies. The ultimate goal is that this cooperative partnership between the community and the police will achieve peace and security.

In Ontario, the police and the community have come to know community policing by a number of labels, including problem-oriented policing and community-based policing. For some forces the phrase "community policing" has become an umbrella term used to describe several of the latest methods of policing. A partial list of these new methods would include: directed patrol, zone policing, foot beats, mini-stations, case management and crime prevention programs. These operational tactics are, however, only part of a much broader approach to providing contemporary police services.

To completely understand community policing, one must be aware of perhaps twelve interconnecting ingredients. The following were developed by the Solicitor General of Canada.

First, the role or mission of the police in Canadian society becomes fundamentally one of peace officers rather than solely as law enforcement officers involved with crime control. In helping to maintain peace, order, and security in local communities, police officers exercise their side of the partnership with the community by being routinely - but not exclusively - responsible for the reduction and prevention of crime and the promotion of public order and individual safety. In the words of Sir Robert Peel's first two police commissioners, Sir Charles Rowan and Sir Richard Mayne, the new police follow the principle:

"To maintain at all times a relationship with the public that gives reality to the historic tradition that the police are the public and that the public are the police. The police being the only members of the public that are paid to give full-time attention to duties which are incumbent on every citizen in the interests of community welfare and existence."

Because police officers serve and protect the public, a police organization is primarily a service to the public for crime and disorder problems rather than a force that is focused primarily on crime.

Second, in adhering to a police-community partnership, the police adopt the key strategy of community consultation. A consultation process helps the police to accomplish two significant objectives. One is to identify their relatively short-term priorities for addressing crime and disorder problems in the community, perhaps on an annual basis. The other is to establish a longer term orientation and a reaffirmation of their mandate through the conferring of public consent. In complementary fashion, this process assists community representatives to set their agenda for safety and security in their area and to better understand the problems associated with public policing. A variety of mechanisms are currently being examined and tested which facilitate a police-community dialogue, including advisory or consultative committees, meetings with local interest groups, and informal contacts with individual members of the local community. This approach differs from the former "professional" model which usually pursued "police-community relations" through a specialized unit rather than at all levels of the police service and through a variety of means. Nonetheless, effective means of community consultation and dialogue are still being explored.

The **third** main ingredient is a strategy involving a proactive approach to policing. Rather than passively waiting for the calls or randomly patroll-

ing for a presumed deterrent effect, the police anticipate future calls by identifying local crime and disorder problems. A scanning and forecasting process is used to identify problems that includes input from the local community. The scanning process is accomplished in part by analyzing patterns among similar crimes and calls for service rather than treating each incident as a separate event that is closed when the case has been solved, as was the practice under the “professional” approach. “Hot spots” of similar crimes are identified by time, place, and type of offence and are brought to the attention of street constables at the neighbourhood level, and to police managers and the police commission for community-wide or city-wide problems. Input from the local community is received in terms of local crime and disorder priorities. A strategic plan may be developed that prioritizes the competing crime and disorder problems at the community level and is reviewed through public discussions.

Fourth, a problem-oriented policing strategy is developed that will address the crime and order problems and their underlying causes. A variety of proactive and reactive policing tactics may be used, depending on the problem and the neighbourhood. However, it is important to note that no single tactic can be identified with community policing and the overall strategy emphasizes flexibility in the use of the full range of tactics in addressing particular problems and neighbourhoods. Any means of increasing the level and quality of contact between citizens and the police are adopted, such as zone policing, neighbourhood foot patrol, officers dedicated to particular beats, mini-stations or store-front offices, differentially responding to calls for service depending on their urgency, volunteers, greater civilianization, flexible shifts, integrated teams (of foot patrol, motorized patrol, and investigative functions), and community advisory or liaison committees. These are accompanied by the existing tactics now identified with the “professional” policing model but which were used largely to the exclusion of others. Such tactics include a rapid-response capability that remains necessary for the occasional life-threatening incidents, as well as a few specialist units, including homicide investigation teams which might also have responsibility for family violence where most homicides occur. Finally, when the problem has been solved or significantly reduced, then an evaluation or assessment is conducted to determine the effectiveness of the tactics.

A **fifth** aspect of community policing is that broader police responses to underlying causes of problems are also introduced, particularly crime

prevention activities. These include opportunity reduction tactics such as “target hardening” using environmental design techniques, and reducing the motivation of potential offenders by long-term social development programs.

Sixth, both sets of prevention activities involve a branching out to other service delivery agencies to form strategic partnerships and a more cooperative and productive division of labour. This tactic of fostering inter-agency cooperation is in partial recognition of the limits of policing beyond what they do extremely well, which is providing 24-hour, rapid, first response to crime and other crises. Other agencies are better able to provide a longer-term response for victims and to undertake crime prevention by addressing the underlying causes of crime, such as poverty, unemployment, poor education and work skills, inadequate housing, and poor health. This cooperative response places the police within a service network of agencies addressing urban safety and, more generally, healthier communities.

Seventh, much of the success of policing depends on how well its personnel operate as information managers who engage in “interactive policing” by routinely exchanging information on a reciprocal basis with the community members through formal contacts and informal networks. While much of the police work is often seen as not being “real” police work because it involves providing services and information unrelated to crime, community police do so on the grounds that, not only is policing a service to the public, but it allows the public to become more familiar with their police service and the police to become more knowledgeable about their community. Closer ties with community members are a good investment for police because they can become sources of valuable information or police “intelligence” when crime problems later arise.

The **eighth** factor is that tactics are developed to reduce the unfounded fear of being victimized, particularly among children, the elderly, and other vulnerable groups in society. Typically, those with the lowest statistical risk have the greatest fear of being victimized. The police now have a responsibility to ensure that this fear has constructive rather than debilitating effects so that those who are vulnerable or view themselves as vulnerable may take reasonable crime prevention measures and then enjoy a safe environment.

Ninth, most police officers are permitted to become career generalists rather than specialists and are responsible for a broader range of ac-

tivities than permitted under the “professional” model, including solving neighbourhood crime and disorder problems. Rather than being treated generally as “blue-collar workers” as they tend to be under the “professional” model, street constables are treated as highly trained, relatively well-paid, white-collar professionals who have the respect of their colleagues and the local community.

Tenth, greater responsibility and autonomy for front line officers is facilitated by decentralized police management and resource deployment that delivers services based on neighbourhoods rather than on shifts. Resources are justified mainly on how well they serve the front line police officers responsible for neighbourhood policing, problem solving, and rapid response to the rare life-threatening calls of regarding incidents in progress.

Eleventh, there is a changed organizational structure. The hierarchical, para-military organizational model that exists in many large police services is surrendered for a flatter profile. In such cases, the front line of policing where police services are provided is the most important part of the organization. Further, the loyalties of officers working under the para-military or “brown” model is to the chain of command, whereas the loyalties of those within community-policing, or the “blue” model, is primarily towards the Charter, the Criminal Code, the common law, and the community.

Finally, given the priorities supported earlier by the community, there is a degree of accountability to the community in terms of a review of progress on those priorities. This informal accountability complements legal accountability through formal external review bodies whose authority is delegated from elected officials.

The preceding 12 points were taken from the report A Vision of the Future of Policing in Canada. This chapter was prepared by Barry Leighton for the Solicitor General of Canada.

Community Policing Strategies

Strategies and tactics are the means to providing policing in the community. Operational strategies of the community policing model always reflect a proactive and reactive mix of police activities and are aimed at improving the quality of community life, including:

- problem/crime analysis through community profile development and statistical analysis including community and police data
- interagency referrals - load sharing
- differential response to calls for service or call screening (managing patrol work loads through variable responses to calls for services)
- zone policing
- directed patrol
- crime prevention, community relations, public affairs
- public education
- foot and motorized patrol
- variations of manpower deployment
- community/police program advisory boards
- management advisory committees/management teams
- the generalist constable
- research planning and program evaluation
- victim assistance

Any one, or a combination of these strategies can be observed in operation in police forces in Ontario. **However, it should be remembered that community-based policing is not an extra program added to existing organizational structures. For this reason, the simple adoption of any one of these operational strategies does not in itself mean that a force is undertaking community policing.**

Future Issues

In the fall of 1990, the Solicitor General of Canada released the findings of a national research initiative into the future of policing. The report cited previously, "A Vision of the Future of Policing in Canada: Police Challenge 2000" covers the research conducted by Dr. Andre Normandeau and Dr. Barry Leighton.

The following section, written by Dr. Leighton dealing with future issues in community policing, has been reproduced in full with the permission of the Solicitor General of Canada.

There are a number of unresolved issues that will be addressed over the next decade while police services seek to implement a community policing approach.

First, there is the need to distinguish between the tactics of community policing and the overall strategies of problem solving within a police-community partnership. Both foot patrol and mini-stations are just two tactics which may or may not be appropriate for some neighbourhoods and for some crime problems. Foot patrol is usually inappropriate in low crime suburbs and areas with less dense population while mini-stations must do more than serve traditional public relations and crime prevention objectives.

Second, placing an emphasis on a particular tactic runs the risk of community policing being regarded as an "add-on" program that is just another specialized unit rather than being seen as a department-wide program with implications for most policing operations. However, it may be necessary to test or demonstrate a program on a partial basis before adopting a program throughout a police service. Whatever approach is used, the introduction of innovation by police executives needs to be supported as a risk-taking exercise that may run the chance of failure.

Third, a definition of "community" must be developed that identifies a practical way in which a local community or neighbourhood can be recognized and related to by the police to make possible a useful dialogue on local crime and disorder problems. Previous attempts have struggled with trying to make democratic representations while more

recent suggestions have leaned towards working with local interest groups and elected officials who can balance the competing interests.

Fourth, concerns must be addressed that community policing will further weaken any control the police now have on crime at the local level. The police-community partnership can be emphasized as an additional resource rather than as a limiting factor. Similarly, co-operation with human service and social service agencies provides additional resources to policing through the pooling of their respective scarce resources. As well, local crime and order problems become joint responsibilities, with the consequent sharing of both successes and failures or limitations. However, police executives are in need of assistance on how to relate to these other agencies.

Fifth, community policing must be tested in neighbourhoods and communities where it is really needed rather than just in those neighbourhoods in which its success can be guaranteed because of the lack of need or because of the availability of resources. Further, any new program should be scientifically evaluated by an independent agency.

Sixth, new measures of police service effectiveness or performance must be developed. These should be in clear contrast with the established criteria for the "professional" model which were: (1) response time, (2) charges cleared, (3) others which stress the efficiency rather than the effectiveness of policing, and (4) popularity polls on how much community members liked their police force.

Some of these new indicators of effectiveness might include:

- identifying local crime and disorder problems through a police-community consultation process;
- solving neighbourhood crime and disorder problems at the local level through a police-community consultation process;
- reducing the number of repeat calls for service from repeat addresses;
- improving the satisfaction with police services by public users of those services, particularly victims of crime;
- increasing the job satisfaction of police officers;

- increasing the reporting of information on local crime and disorder problems by community residents and increasing the knowledge of the community and its problems by local beat officers; and decreasing the fear of personal victimization.

Seventh, new criteria must also be developed for evaluating police officers working in a police service operating on community policing principles. When the criteria for police service performance shift, then the position descriptions and performance criteria must also be changed to reflect that shift. As well, police officers must be rewarded through promotion and other means for performing in accordance with the new criteria and principles. These criteria should include such factors as:

- improving the satisfaction with service provided by the officer to local community members, particularly to victims of crime;
- the officer's knowledge of the community, its members, its resources, and its problems;
- crime and disorder problems solved as well as time spent on problem solving for as yet unresolved problems;

Eighth, the strengths and limitations of community policing must be recognized, including the probability that it is not a panacea that will solve all crime and disorder problems. Nor does this renewed approach shift away completely from traditional policing tactics, such as rapid response to crisis calls. Instead, it is a more appropriate use of reactive tactics, using them only where they are necessary, and balancing them with complementary, proactive tactics to address and solve the underlying causes of crime and disorder problems. One of the most difficult tests of this "new" approach to policing is its ability to handle problems associated with disadvantaged or vulnerable groups in Canadian society, including many aboriginal peoples in the urban environment, some new Canadians and visible minorities, dependent women in domestic roles, elderly and children at risk of abuse, and so on.

Ninth, the issue of what community policing means in a rural and small-town context has yet to be fully explored. This examination should include: (1) the differences in policing between large municipal forces and small-town and rural forces; (2) problems facing small police services with limited resources which are implementing this approach; and

(3) how to evaluate small forces pursuing this approach and what are the criteria for success.

Perhaps the biggest issue, the tenth on this list, is what community policing does in terms of empowering the community versus further empowering the police. On the one hand, by advocating a police-community partnership, this new approach seeks to empower the community to bring it onto a more equal footing with the police in terms of joint "ownership" of local crime and disorder problems and as "co-producers" of peace, order, and security at the local level. However, it is the community side of the partnership that requires the greatest assistance.

Eleventh, greater community involvement with policing might be understood by the police as providing supplementary resources through volunteers, neighbourhood watch, and other forms of community surveillance. As well, this new approach might provide an expanded role for the police in terms of the type of behaviour that is addressed, such as street behaviour of a nuisance value, and the tactics used, such as direct involvement in crime prevention through social development activities. In rare instances, the police might take community involvement as providing a mandate for additional powers which would otherwise be inconsistent with routine policing practices. Overall, the issue is about how far the police can go in performing their role in a free and democratic society when there is an ever-increasing demand for expanded police services. For example, should the police engage in community development, or should they work only as community catalysts, or should they refrain from direct involvement in long-term community development and social development activities but cooperate with other service agencies?

Finally, in light of the more prominent role played by the community, a twelfth issue surrounds whether there is a changed role for police governing bodies, such as police boards and commissions. Confusion may well arise that input through community consultation into police decision making and strategic planning gives greater power to participating community members and organizations for an oversight role.

Like most large, public service agencies, the requirements for innovation in policing include: changing the formal corporate values as well as the sub-culture of "front-line" policing; having an inspired chief executive who is committed to the new approach; having a motivated and experienced level of middle management which can implement the new

approach in operational terms; recognizing innovations that come from the street level of policing; and obtaining support for the new approach and the risks that it runs from the police governing authorities and from the local community.

Shaping the Future

DEVELOPING A COMMUNITY PROFILE



Ontario

Ministry of the
Solicitor General and
Correctional Services

Developing a Community Profile

A manual for the development and implementation of
community profiling for police planners and managers

Ministry of the Solicitor General
and Correctional Services of Ontario
and
Ministry of the Solicitor General
of Canada

A.R.A. Consultants

February 1991
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Preface

Developing a Community Profile was prepared for the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario by A.R.A. Consultants.

This report is part of a series of manuals on community policing produced jointly by the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario and the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada. The objective of the series is to provide information on the implementation of community policing, focusing on planning, management processes, training and operational strategies. These reports are designed for use by all members of the police services, police services boards, community groups, students of policing/criminology, educational facilities, police college instructors, and government officials.

The ministries wish to express their appreciation to Dr. Leah Lambert, Manager, Strategic Planning, Metropolitan Toronto Police and the police managers and officers who have contributed to the report.

*Barry Leighton & Marsha Mitzak
Series Editors*

NOTE: *The views expressed in this report are those of the author and not necessarily those of the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario or the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada.*

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Table Of Contents

Introduction	1
Purpose of this guide	2
What is a community profile?	4
Demographic Analysis	9
Where to start	9
What to do with all those numbers	10
What you need to know	10
Determining trends and population changes over time	11
Analyzing demographic data	12
Socio-economic Status	13
Race and ethnicity	13
Household and family structure	13
Crime Analysis	15
Further analysis	17
Contact With Community Organizations And Services	19
Who to contact	19
What information is required	20
Obtaining police input	21
Community Input	23
Consultations with community groups	23
Community forums	24
Resident survey	25
End Notes	27

Appendix	
Sample Outline for Community Profiling	29
For Further Reading	31

Introduction

A community profile is a planning tool used to provide direction to police and community groups to help identify the needs, concerns and perceptions of residents. The collection and analysis of various types of information yields a picture of a neighbourhood or patrol area as a community. The profile should serve to identify community problems and priorities as well as available resources .

Community policing assumes the active involvement of the community in the planning and delivery of policing services. The need to develop a police-community partnership to effectively address crime and order problems is a fundamental component of community policing.

“Community-based policing is a philosophy which recognizes and accepts the role of any relevant “community” in influencing the philosophy, management and delivery of police services. The community is not simply viewed as a passive recipient of police services, but as an active element in the decision making process which affects priorities, allocations, and the implementation of police services.”¹

“Community-based policing recognizes the crucial role of the community in the business of policing . . . The ultimate goal of this type of policing is to foster a co-operative partnership between the community and the police to achieve security and protection.”²

To ensure that community policing strategies actually address the specific needs of the community, it is necessary to clearly identify the nature of the community and its problems. One of the most effective and broad-based approaches to doing this is to compile what is known as a community profile. Such a profile can include: demographic characteristics, crime rates, patterns and trends, community issues and concerns, community perceptions of crime and public safety and social service and community organizations.

The profile that is developed will assist in providing direction to the planning of community policing priorities and strategies. In addition, the process of obtaining the information should contribute in and of itself, to the positive development of community policing. Citizens, social

service agencies, community groups and all levels of police personnel should provide input to the profile, particularly in terms of perceived crime and order problems.

A community profile is more than a compilation of statistics – it incorporates the views, concerns and perceptions of the people that live and work in that community. The extent to which this can be done in a comprehensive or scientifically rigorous way will vary depending on the resources available. For maximum effectiveness, some degree of consultation with the community is essential.

Purpose of this Guide

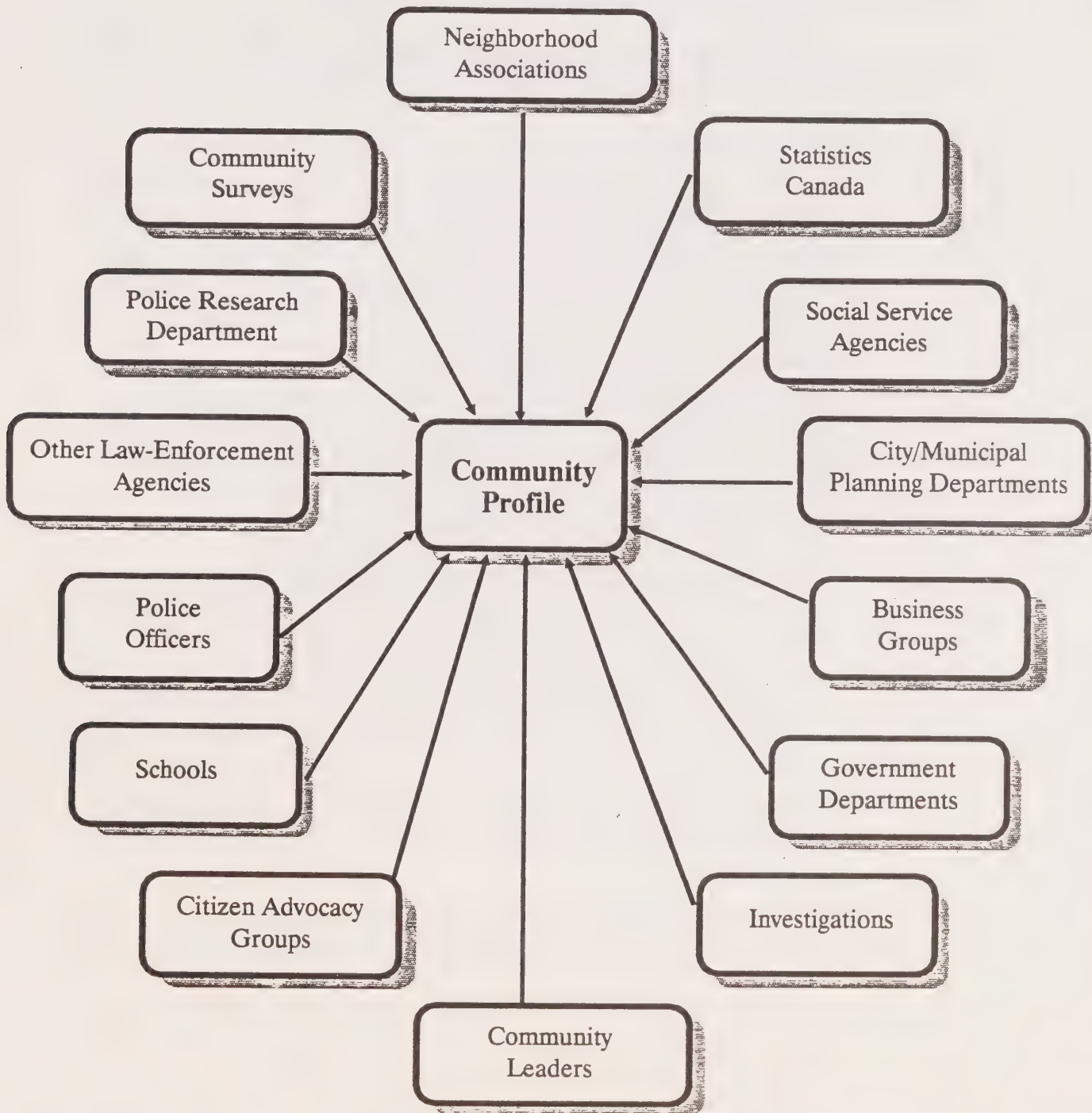
The process for implementing community policing strategies in your jurisdiction includes the following steps:³

- identifying community problems and needs
- planning
- defining goals and objectives
- designing and implementing programs
- evaluation.

The first step in this process is crucial to effective development of community policing. Input from both the community residents and the police themselves is necessary to accurately identify community problems and needs. Thus, the community profile which is developed and the way in which it is developed represents the foundation upon which successful policing strategies will be built.

This guide is designed to help police forces develop a community profile. While there is no formula for doing this, the guide contains sources of information and suggested approaches for obtaining the necessary information. Approaches used will depend on available personnel and financial resources, data sources, and extent to which the police force is already involved with community organizations. A profile may contain anything from a simple population analysis to a comprehensive study of the demographic, economic and social environment of the community. This guide is intended to provide a starting point and basic framework for developing a community profile which can be built on, added to, and changed as required. It is hoped that users of this guide will be able to:

Possible Information Sources for a Community Profile



- develop a better understanding of how a community profile assists with community policing;
- develop greater knowledge of the community, its people, services, and organizations; and
- design, implement and evaluate a variety of strategies developed out of a co-ordinated response to local problems.

What is a Community Profile?

Community policing explicitly recognizes the need to adopt a proactive, problem solving strategy that involves community leaders, agencies and residents. Because these individuals are most familiar with the geography, people and community problems, they can be most helpful in developing policing strategies designed to solve the problems.

The delivery of effective policing service in Ontario communities today cannot be accomplished without the co-operation and involvement of local citizens. Police must understand the nature of the community to which they are providing service, as well as the concerns and needs of its residents. Frequently, these needs relate not only to crime but to broader issues of public safety and public order.

How can police learn about and come to understand the needs and concerns of the communities they serve? One method involves the development of a community profile.

- A community profile should help you organize information about the community in a way which will be useful in planning policing strategies.
- A community profile includes the identification of crime problems and public safety issues expressed by local residents and business owners.
- A community profile is the first step in developing a policing service which is responsive to the needs and concerns of the community.
- A community profile must be used on an ongoing basis – to do this, it must be updated regularly (every couple of years) as new issues emerge or the community changes.

- Collecting information for the community profile must involve active interaction with the community.
- A community profile is more than a compilation of facts and figures – it requires analysis – what do all those facts and figures mean?

A profile includes a clear designation of the geographic boundaries of the community or neighbourhood and any or all of the following:

- demographic characteristics of the population;
- economic characteristics of the community;
- a description of the social environment;
- crime rates, patterns and trends;
- community perceptions of crime and public safety; and
- a review of community organizations and associations.

Community policing requires a clear definition of a neighbourhood or a community. It also requires recognition that any particular neighbourhood may include a number of different groups (e.g., senior citizens, ethnic groups, business owners, youth, etc.) – all of whom must be contacted and considered in the planning of effective policing strategies. The selection of any specific geographical area must consider not only crime problems, but other community issues which affect public safety (e.g., resident apathy, particular police-community tensions, etc.). The goal of community policing is to develop effective community-police planning and co-operation throughout all geographic areas to which you provide policing service. You should select a readily identifiable neighbourhood as the initial site for implementation, bearing in mind that your goal is to do the same thing for all of the neighbourhoods in your jurisdiction.

To assist readers in preparing community profiles, this report is structured around four basic activities required to compile information for the profile. These are:

- demographic analysis;
- crime analysis;

- identification of and contact with community organizations and services; and
- obtaining community input.

Decisions will need to be made regarding the level of detail required and resources expended to obtain information. These decisions can be guided by the answers to questions such as:

- What relevant information can be obtained from government departments or social service agencies?
- What resources are available or can be obtained to assist in this activity?
- How serious are the “problems” faced by the community and the force?

For a number of the information gathering activities (e.g., obtaining community input), there is a range of methods which can be used (e.g., a full scale survey of residents versus community meetings). The choice of your method will depend on available resources and the degree of detail you require.

The development of a useful community profile requires the involvement of the community. Skills and resources are needed to:

- identify what information is required and how to gather it in the most efficient manner;
- collect the necessary information accurately (through existing data sources, interviews with community members, surveys, etc.);
- analyze and interpret the information in a way which yields useful conclusions, comparisons, etc.; and
- present the results in a meaningful, readily understood manner.

Many of these skills are probably available within your force. Others may be available through local community colleges, universities or government offices. Community members whom you already know may be willing to help. If you can obtain voluntary assistance from knowledgeable researchers or planners in your own community, you will

Techniques for Compiling a Community Profile

Demographic Analysis

- population statistics
- family composition
- housing information



Crime Analysis

- crime rates
- crime trends
- calls for service



Identification of Community Organizations & Services

- nature/role of community agencies
- perception of community issues
- police input



Community Input

- perception of crime rate, safety & police
- community issues
- respondent characteristics
- citizen concerns

benefit the community profile itself and the community policing approach of your force.

Whatever resources are assigned to developing a community profile, you should try to use an outside “third party” to review your initial plans (related to what information you will gather and how you will collect and analyze it). The best sources for such a review would be individuals in another force or in another part of your force who have conducted similar profiles (you can learn from both their success and their problems), or individuals in government departments (e.g., in the Ministry of the Solicitor General) who are familiar with the profile process and objectives.

Demographic Analysis

A demographic analysis is not done simply because a statistical report is needed. It is done because a community profile must focus on changing or persistent problems. You need to know population trends in your community in order to identify policing service needs.

One of the first steps in compiling a community profile is a demographic analysis. A demographic analysis is simply a record of the number and relative proportions of population groups (e.g., youth, seniors, ethnic groups) in the community. Depending on information needs, a community may be defined by a neighbourhood, ward, electoral boundaries, county, etc.

A demographic analysis is useful for:

- strategic planning;
- identifying community characteristics;
- identifying population trends;
- forecasting future growth; and
- forecasting future resource requirements.

Where to start

The first step is to clearly delineate the geographic boundaries of the community involved. Fortunately, most information required for a demographic analysis already exists in one form or another. Such an analysis usually begins with census data. Census data is collected by Statistics Canada every 10 years in years ending with a 1 (i.e., 1971, 1981) and with updated population figures available every five years in those years ending with a 6 (i.e., 1976, 1986).

Statistics Canada is not, however, the only supplier of demographic data. Other sources include:

- city/town/regional planning departments;
- public and university/college libraries; and

- municipal/county or regional assessment rolls.

What to do with all those numbers

Census data is informative, but can be overwhelming. So how do you make sense of it all?

First, define your community. Census data is available in a number of “sizes,” i.e., by province, electoral division and wards. There are some potential problems which may arise in determining exact boundaries. For example, census tracts may not always correspond to neighbourhood or district boundaries—so you may not get an exact profile of your community. Sometimes a municipal planning office will have a breakdown of population figures that better reflect the community.

What you need to know

Census data is broken down by a number of categories or variables. You can determine the composition of your community according to:

- age;
- gender;
- marital status;
- household and family structure;
- level of education;
- occupation;
- labour force participation;
- average household income;
- ethnicity; and
- period of immigration.

Population trends, growth rates, changes in ethnic diversity can be highlighted by examining the same categories across different years (e.g., 1971, 1976, 1981, 1986).

Determining Trends and Population Changes Over Time

To be most useful, the information used should be the most recent data available. If you are using census data, it will be from the last year ending in a 1 or a 6. Then use data from 5 to 10 years before the last year so you can see how the pattern has changed.

Table 1: To determine changes in age distribution:

	<u>1971</u>	<u>1976</u>	<u>1981</u>	<u>1986</u>
A. Enter here the number of people in your community age 15-19 in the given year	1,000	1,100	1,500	2,500
B. Enter here the total community population	10,000	12,500	14,000	13,500
C. Divide B into A and multiply by 100, to get the percent of youth (15-19) in the community	10.0%	8.8%	10.7%	18.5%

Look at the changes over time, and repeat this for other population groups, to see how they have changed.

In addition to examining changes over time, population figures can be compared to other communities and/or surrounding areas to highlight differences in demographic composition. To make such comparisons meaningful compare the percentages within each grouping rather than the actual numbers.

Steps for Conducting a Demographic Analysis

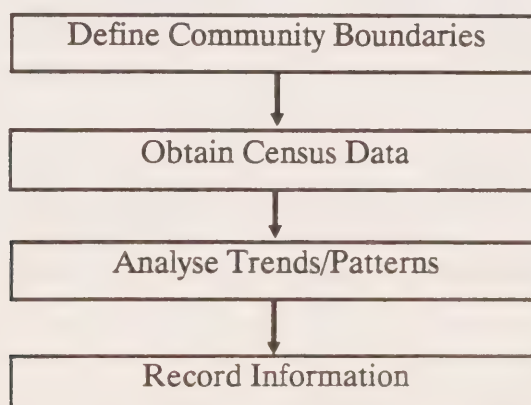


Table 2: Comparison of population age distributions between locations

	<u>Community #1</u>		<u>Community #2</u>	
	#	%	#	%
Population	10,000	100.0%	60,000	100.0%
Age Composition				
0 - 5	300	3.0%	4,500	7.5%
6 - 14	650	6.5%	5,000	8.3%
15 - 19	1,250	12.5%	4,000	6.6%
20 - 24	1,560	15.6%	8,000	13.3%
25 - 54	3,840	38.4%	16,500	27.5%
55 - 64	1,400	14.0%	13,000	21.6%
65 - +	1,000	10.0%	9,000	15.0%

Compare the percentages across the two communities. How do the communities differ from one another? How might that affect service delivery needs? For example, community #1 has only 24% of its population over the age of 55 compared to 36.6% for community #2. While a high percentage of seniors probably won't lead to an increase in crime, they may perceive the crime rate to be much higher than other groups, thereby requiring more prevention activities.

Analyzing Demographic Data - Numbers Alone Serve No Purpose

Simply collecting numbers and information is not sufficient. To develop a community profile which can be used to effectively guide policing services, you must take the numbers and information and determine what they mean. What are their implications for current and future decisions around how you deliver policing services, the nature of programs needed, allocation of resources, etc.

Consider some of the following questions when examining the demographic information. Try to relate population trends and changes to possible service needs. This list will provide some suggestions for further analysis and discussion.

Age

- Is the proportion of seniors in the community increasing? (Seniors may feel more vulnerable to crime, and as a result may benefit from crime prevention programs.)

Socio-economic status

- How do the community's socio-economic characteristics compare to those of surrounding communities?
- How do the socio-economic characteristics differ among the population within the community? (i.e., is the population fairly homogeneous or are there considerable differences between income levels, and educational levels?

Needs and demands for service, as well as perceptions of crime and disorder vary considerably between different groups.

Community Diversity

- Is the community predominantly homogeneous or multiracial/multi-cultural?
- Is the ethnic diversity increasing?
- Are first nation or aboriginal people residents of the community?

Members of the ethnic minority communities may have special needs but may be constrained in obtaining services because of language and cultural barriers. Traditional means of obtaining community support may not be appropriate for some groups.

Household and Family Structure

Are households predominantly singles, couples with children, single parent families, two parent families? Different types of households require different kinds of programs. For example, working couples with children will have little time available for community projects.

An analysis of demographic data can be a simple determination of population increases/decreases over time or a comprehensive analysis of population characteristics and their implications for service needs and demands. The degree of complexity will depend on planning requirements, resources available (manpower, financial) and data available. Demographic data won't provide all the information to compile a community profile, but it will provide a starting point for further information gathering and positive steps for addressing community needs.

Crime Analysis

Crime analysis helps you to focus on changing or persistent crime problems. Crime analysis alone, however, does not provide sufficient information for planning effective policing services. Equipped with information about crime patterns and trends, you can then move on to answer questions about “why” (e.g., community apathy, lack of positive activities for youth, criminal opportunity, etc.) Answers to these questions (obtained from combining crime analysis with other information gathered for the community profile) will help guide effective responses to public safety issues in the community.

An analysis of crime-related data will highlight crime problems in the community. The comprehensiveness of a crime analysis depends on the statistics already available and the personnel needed to analyze the information.

The offence categories you choose to use for examination of crime trends need consideration. For example, do you need only to consider “Break and Enter,” or would it be more useful to break such crimes down into residential and business categories? How available is this information? Are there sufficient resources to compile the data if it is not available?

Reviewing calls for service in the community will be useful in informing you, at least in part, about the concerns and expectations of the citizens in the community.

Occurrence data can be plotted on community maps to highlight problem areas. As well, information can be compared across time or across different locations in order to highlight crime trends.

To make crime rate comparisons between locations meaningful, the data should be shown as a population ratio (i.e., crime rate per 1,000 population). Offence rate is computed by relating the number of offences that occurred in the community to the population of that community to generate a rate per 1,000 population.

In examining trends, it may be useful to capture both numbers of crimes/occurrences and rates per 1,000 population. Comparing crime rates over time or between locations provides for a more meaningful comparison where there are differences in the size of the population. The actual numbers of crimes/occurrences are also important because they help capture the “size” of the problem in terms of the “demand for service.”

The following chart provides an example of crime trend data.

TYPE OF CRIME	Community A				Community B			
	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	% Change	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	% Change
Homicide								
Sexual Assault								
Other Assault								
Sexual Offence								
Robbery								
Offensive Weapons								
Break and Enter								
Theft								
Fraud								
Other Criminal Code								
Total								

Interpretation of crime trend data must take into consideration a note of caution due to the small numbers which may be the base in any particular category. In particular, percentage changes over time can be misleading when the base number of crimes is small (e.g., to say that break and enters increased by 67% in one year sounds like a major crime wave. To say they increased from three occurrences one year to five occurrences the next year puts the percentage increase in perspective).

A more comprehensive analysis would involve gathering information on non-criminal occurrences. Data on order-maintenance problems, calls for service (nature of request, location), victim-witness reports can provide a detailed picture of problems facing the community. Such information can usually be obtained through file searches ranging from simple logs of calls to elaborate case files. Information can then be analyzed to determine the nature, extent and location of identified problems. This type of initiative can be extremely time consuming unless information is readily available (for example, through a computerized database system).

Further Analysis

Combining the crime data with information obtained from other data sources such as agency representatives, the demographic analysis, resident survey, as well as input from officers themselves will highlight what is known about crime-related issues, how they are related to other problems in the community and possible causes and effects.

Issues to examine would include:

- **Perceptions of problems:** How do perceptions differ between police, community leaders and residents? Are some problems not being addressed?
- Do certain groups perceive crime to be more of a problem than other groups?
- **Environmental effects:** Are there frequent calls for service to one particular area?
- Are some locations providing opportunities for crime (i.e., poor supervision/maintenance of apartments or shopping centres)?
- **Responses to problems:** Have other agencies attempted to address community problems?
- What approaches have worked?
- What approaches have not worked?

Contact With Community Organizations and Services

Community service organizations are a valuable and readily accessible source of information. A constructive relationship between the police and these organizations will be an ongoing source of ideas, information and support. Such a relationship can be achieved by preparing a list of agencies and organizations, followed by personal contact with representatives from these groups. In this way their perspectives are documented and the foundation for an ongoing relationship is established.

This step involves identifying and liaising with community agencies and social organizations in order to determine the nature and extent of their activities. Representatives of these organizations have both knowledge of the community and credibility amongst its member groups. There are two objectives of this type of initiative:

- to obtain information about the community in order to develop appropriate policing program strategies; and
- to establish credibility within the community before implementing strategies.

Community-based strategies will not be successful without the support of the community leaders. Community leaders and organizers can provide information, insight and expertise into the concerns facing their members or client groups. Many service agencies conduct their own needs assessments/client surveys which can provide useful information regarding the needs and characteristics of the various user groups.

Who to Contact

The number and variety of associations to contact will vary depending on the size and nature of the community. The following is a list of possible agencies to contact.

- civic associations
- community development agencies

- first nation/aboriginal band councils
- native friendship centres
- public sector organizations (e.g., City Hall, public housing)
- educational institutions (elementary, secondary, post-secondary)
- community service agencies (e.g., youth support services, day care)
- community task force/coalition members
- non-profit voluntary groups (e.g., United Way)
- public agencies (e.g., public transportation, social assistance)
- ethnic/racial/multicultural organizations
- recreation service providers (e.g., YM/YWCA)
- other law-enforcement agencies
- social work agencies

Agencies may be identified simply through the phone directory, through municipal service directories, community information centres and public library information centres.

What Information is Required

The following list of questions will help guide a community assessment process through agency networking. This is by no means an exhaustive list but does cover some of the more important issues to be addressed before implementing any programs or service changes.

- Who are key community leaders?
- What do they feel are the most important issues/problems confronting members of the community?
- What is perceived to be the cause of identified problems?
- What are their perceptions of neighbourhood safety and police service?
- What programs and services are offered?

- What groups/clients are using these services?
- What are the needs? Are they being met?
- How might the organizations and police work together to meet community needs?

Community agency liaising is an ongoing process as opposed to a one time data collection process. It also implies two-way communications and information sharing.

Information obtained from this effort can help to identify community problems. It may be the case that agency representatives view community problems very differently from the police. What might be considered a minor problem from a policing point of view may be perceived as a major community problem to some respondents. Agency liaising enables you to examine community issues from a different perspective. The ultimate outcome of this exercise is to develop a comprehensive understanding of the community in order to better serve that community.

Obtaining Police Input

The police officers themselves should have input into the profile of a community's problems and needs. While all levels of force personnel should have an opportunity to share their knowledge of the community, those officers particularly involved with community relations, crime prevention and foot patrol have valuable experience with community members which give them useful insights into community concerns. Input from force personnel can be gathered through informal group meetings or through the use of a questionnaire/survey.

Community Input

“Community-oriented policing means changing the daily work of the police to include investigating problems as well as incidents. It means defining as a problem whatever a significant body of public opinion regards as a threat to community order. It means working with the good guys, not just against the bad guys.”⁴

Obtaining input from residents of the community is a critical component of a community profile. It is possible to tap into the opinions of residents in a number of different ways depending on the level of resources available and the nature of the community. Some techniques for obtaining community input include:

- meetings and consultations with local community groups (e.g., tenants’ associations, business associations, etc.) including one-to-one meetings with key people in the groups and attendance at group meetings;
- community forums which are open to the public;
- surveys of area residents.

Each of these three methods are discussed briefly below.

Consultations with Community Groups

A previous section of this report dealt with consultation with organizations which provide services to the community. The individuals you will consult within those organizations are frequently professional service providers and managers who can provide valuable information related to the problems and needs they see as a result of contact with their clients or constituents.

In this section of the report, we are dealing with other types of community groups — those that represent the concerns and interests of their fellow residents or co-workers in the neighbourhood. Groups such as tenants’ groups, seniors’ groups, business associations, religious organizations, etc., represent the more general public in the community and, as such, can be contacted for input regarding the community’s perceptions of neighbourhood safety, community problems, policing services, etc.

Individual one-to-one meetings with a key member of each group can provide some of this input, as well as establish a link with the group which will be important in the development of any community policing strategy. It is also useful for an officer to attend meetings of these groups, explaining that the force is undertaking a profile of the community and why this is being done. Asking then for input from the group through a discussion at the meeting provides a real opportunity for obtaining information and developing rapport.

If resources are limited, this may be the most efficient means of learning about the problems and needs of the community from the perspective of its residents. There are, however, some limitations which must be recognized if this approach is used.

- Each group may have a bias towards particular needs or problems because they know these best. It is important that a broad range of such groups is identified and contacted.
- The officers designated to undertake these contacts may be asked to explain community policing and elaborate on what the force is going to do. Officers must, therefore, be well versed in community policing (using this as an opportunity to establish long-term links with community groups) and must not raise unrealistic expectations in the group.
- Not all community residents or workers are represented by groups. Thus, the results of this method must recognize that other opinions may also be widespread in the community.

Community Forums

Another source of information on perceptions and concerns in a neighbourhood is the community forum which allows public discussion. This is an inexpensive strategy and does not require a great deal of time investment. The forum is an opportunity for the police to share information about their directions with the community and an opportunity for the community to share its concerns and perceptions with the police.

The following is list of shortcomings of this strategy.

- Some communities may not respond to calls for public meetings and where turn-out is low, a community forum may not be particularly useful.

- The perceptions heard at a community forum are unlikely to reflect those of the whole community – those individuals who feel strongly about one issue or other are more likely to attend.
- If there is a particular issue of concern in the community (or in some segment of the community) at the time of the forum, it is likely that discussion will focus almost exclusively on that issue. While there may be a time and place for such a focus, this may not be useful for input to a community profile.
- Community forums, particularly when the police are involved, are often high profile events with media coverage. It is important, therefore, that the police feel confident in their ability to manage the forum in terms of getting the information required.

To be useful for the development of a community profile, a community forum should be avoided in situations where there is a “single issue” focus at the time or where there appear to be significant problems in community-police relations.

Resident Survey

There are many ways to conduct a community resident survey. The method used will depend on the number of people to be contacted, the amount and complexity of information required and the resources available to conduct the study. A survey of community residents:

- provides information on citizens’ perception of crime, community problems and victimization;
- provides information on citizens’ perception of community services (awareness, accessibility, availability, satisfaction);
- provides perceptions of and attitudes toward police activities (support, acceptance);
- provides descriptive data about the community residents.

Surveys can be time consuming, expensive and complicated. While community input is important, undertaking a full-scale survey should be considered only when sufficient financial resources and technical expertise are available. If one or both of these conditions are lacking, we

recommend that community input be obtained through the more informal mechanisms such as consultations with community groups.

If a survey is required, there are a number of conditions which must first be satisfied to ensure that the information obtained is both accurate and representative of the entire community:

- the sample size must be adequate to ensure representation;
- the survey respondents must be selected in a systematic and controlled manner;
- questionnaires must be carefully designed to ensure an adequate response rate; and
- data must be tabulated and analyzed in a systematic and rigorous manner.

Endnotes

¹*Community-Policing Planning Project: Interim Progress Report, Planning and Research Unit, Metropolitan Toronto Police Force, April 1, 1987.*

²*Community-Based Policing, Policy Development and Co-ordination Branch, Ontario Ministry of the Solicitor General.*

³*For further elaboration, see: Community-Based Policing, prepared by Policy Development and Co-ordination Branch, Ontario Ministry of the Solicitor General.*

⁴*Making Neighbourhoods Safe. J.Q. Wilson and G. Kelling; The Atlantic Monthly. Feb. 1989.*

Appendix

Sample Outline for Community Profile

Introduction

- purpose/rationale for the study
- methods used/approach to study.

Description of Area

- definition of community
- geographical/physical characteristics
- map(s).

Demographic Profile

- age breakdown, household structure, income status, population mobility, ethnic status, etc.

Crime Analysis

- sources of data
- incidence/nature of crimes
- crime rates, trends, patterns.

Community Issues

- approach to agency networking
- results of resident survey
- nature and extent of community organizations, services
- major issues
- perceptions of safety/community problems
- relationship between community and police

- comparison of crime rates with perceptions of crime.

Future Directions

- summary of community issues
- potential for community-based policing strategies.

Some of the information and work sheets presented in this chapter are adapted from: **Enjoying Research?** Abbey-Livingston and Abbey. Ontario Ministry of Tourism and Recreation, 1982.

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COMMUNITY POLICING

Shaping the Future

PROBLEM ORIENTED POLICING



Ministry of the
Solicitor General and
Correctional Services

Problem Oriented Policing

A manual for the development and implementation
of problem oriented policing

Ministry of the Solicitor General
and Correctional Services of Ontario
and
Ministry of the Solicitor General
of Canada

Christopher Murphy, Ph.D.
Dalhousie University

February 1991
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Preface

Problem Oriented Policing was prepared for the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada by Dr. Christopher Murphy, Dalhousie University.

This report is part of a series of manuals on community policing produced jointly by the Ministry of Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario and the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada. The objective of the series is to provide information on the implementation of community policing, focusing on planning, management processes, training and operational strategies. These reports are designed for use by all members of the police services, police services boards, community groups, students of policing/criminology, educational facilities, police college instructors, and government officials.

The ministries wish to express their appreciation to the City of Edmonton Police Force, the City of Halifax Police Force, Professor John Eck of the Police Executive Research Forum, Washington D.C. and those police managers and officers who have contributed to the report.

Barry Leighton & Marsha Mitzak
Series Editors

NOTE: *The views expressed in this report are those of the author and not necessarily those of the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario or the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada.*

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Table Of Contents

INTRODUCTION	1
SECTION 1: THE PROBLEM OF INCIDENT DRIVEN POLICING	3
The Development of Incident Driven Policing	3
The Limits of Incident Driven Policing	5
SECTION 2: PROBLEM ORIENTED POLICING	7
Overview of the Problem Solving Approach	7
Overview of The Problem Solving Process	8
SECTION 3: PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION	11
Defining Problems: What is a Problem?	11
Who Identifies Problems?	12
Selecting Problems	14
SECTION 4: ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM	17
Information Gathering	17
Information Sources	17
Information Analysis	20
SECTION 5: STRATEGIC RESPONSE	23
Strategic Objectives	23
Response Options	24
Implementation Plan	29
SECTION 6: EVALUATION	30
Reasons for Evaluating the Impact	30
Points on Evaluation	30
Evaluation as the End Point	33
CONCLUSION	35
ENDNOTES	
ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY	

Introduction

It's a typical Friday night for Constable Smith. Her first call of the evening shift reports a suspicious person in a residential neighbourhood. Though arriving at the address four minutes later, a brief conversation with the complainant and a slow drive around the block fails to yield a suspect. The entire call is concluded in about 15 minutes. This allows her to be "back in service" and available to take the next call, a shoplifting complaint in a corner store. While normally a routine case, its regularity in this particular store, means the owner will wish to prosecute. Thirty minutes of discussion with the angry store owner and an uncooperative juvenile, and thirty more minutes of paperwork, may produce a case that will eventually reach court. Regardless, Constable Smith knows there will soon be another shoplifter to take this one's place. The next call reports a noise disturbance. The offenders will probably be gone from the scene and the angry resident will call again when they return. This call is followed by a domestic dispute from a familiar address. Depending on the seriousness of tonight's argument, Constable Smith will either arrest or remove the husband who, one way or another, will be back home to resume the argument. Another "suspicious person" call from a worried older woman and the usual Friday night "noisy party" call from a badly run apartment building, concludes the shift. Constable Smith drives slowly home wondering why, despite the busy shift and her best efforts, she feels increasingly dissatisfied and frustrated with her work.

By conventional standards, Constable Smith's rapid text book response to six radio calls and one arrest would be considered a good night's work. So why was Constable Smith frustrated? Quite simply, police officers like Constable Smith know that their best efforts will have little lasting impact on most of the problems they are asked to respond to. They know that next Friday, and on Fridays after that, they will dutifully answer the same kinds of calls, at the same addresses, about the same problems. Limited by a patrol function that tells them to respond to "as many calls as possible, as quickly as possible", they will have neither the time, nor the authority to do anything more than simply "respond" to those calls.

Constable's Smith's problem illustrates on a personal level the limits of what some researchers call **incident driven policing**. They argue that modern policing has become an expensive answering service, focusing police resources almost exclusively on responding rapidly to incidents that in most cases have already happened and will probably happen again. Rather than solving problems, the police end up simply responding to them. The increasing recognition of the limits of incident-driven and response-oriented policing as an effective police method of handling complex community problems, or even as an efficient use of police resources, has led police to develop a variety of innovative, alternative policing strategies.

One of the most promising alternative strategies to incident driven policing is called **Problem Oriented Policing (P.O.P.)**. Problem Oriented Policing is a style of policing that emphasizes the strategic use of problem solving techniques as a basis for more effective police response to repetitive or related crime and order problems. While problem solving has always been an informal part of policing, problem oriented policing programs, systematically and formally introduced problem solving as basic police philosophy, training and practice.

This report outlines the key elements of the problem solving process, based on the experience and methods used by a few selected police forces in the U.S. and Canada.

Section 1:

The Problem Of Incident Driven Policing

The incident driven style of policing which defines most patrol functions in Canada evolved with the modernization of police technology and equipment. The automobile made it possible to answer calls more quickly, the telephone enabled the public to request police services more often and computers saved on dispatch time. Recently however, many police managers have come to view this form of policing as less than effective in solving community problems. This chapter briefly traces the development and logic of conventional reactive policing, discusses its impact on police work, and outlines its limits as a strategy for solving community policing problems.

The Development of Incident Driven Policing

Prior to the development of modern urban society and widespread use of the telephone, police had far fewer demands for their services. The relatively low level of “reactive” demand allowed the police to patrol communities and neighbourhoods in a self-directed, relatively autonomous, and comprehensive manner that provided “full-service” policing.

The demand for police services however grew dramatically, as technology made them available to anyone with a telephone or a dime. Where people were previously forced to solve minor problems on their own, they now expected the police to respond to **many more** of their problems and to do so rapidly. This expectation not only meant an enormous increase in the demand for police services, but also an expansion of the kinds of service they were expected to deliver.

In order to efficiently respond to this dramatic change in the nature and size of citizen demands, traditional policing had to be radically restructured. This was done by transforming neighbourhood or beat foot patrol into area based, mobile patrol.

Motorized patrol allowed not only a more rapid response to most calls for service, but allowed a more expansive police coverage of the areas

that generated those calls. Mobile patrol, together with the development of modern radio communications, also enabled police officers to be in constant communication with dispatchers in headquarters.

Centralized radio communications meant that police work could now be directed from “outside” the neighbourhoods and communities in which the police were operating. This of course meant that neighbourhood police stations and the beat system had to be abandoned, as the new standards of “rapid and expansive response” made them inefficient and outdated.

As a result of these social and technological changes a new style of patrol policing developed. This style stressed the allocation of random motorized patrol to large geographic areas. Rapid response to large numbers of calls for police service became the principal criteria for effective policing. Specialized units, which were presumed to be more effective than general patrol, took over most of the investigative, preventive and public contact functions. As a result, the patrol officer’s job became almost exclusively a “response” function. For the patrol officer, “success” and performance was measured by rapidly responding to as many calls as possible, as quickly as possible.

As a fast extensive, response service, conventional policing was remarkably successful. Staggering numbers of calls for service were answered daily. Response times in most major cities averaged four to six minutes for most calls and as low as 3 minutes for emergency calls. Although response policing provided fast and extensive police service to almost everyone who requested it, this success created a patrol model with the following characteristics.

1. Incident Oriented:

The primary operational focus of the force is responding to particular incidents, calls, cases or events, not to related calls or incidents, or the underlying problems they often represent.

2. Reactive Orientation:

The management and operations of the force are primarily mobilized and oriented to responding to events as they arise; response capacity and capability are emphasized; little time or resources are devoted to proactive or preventive activities.

3. Limited Analysis:

As response and availability are given operational priority, analysis and information gathering is limited to specific incidents or events and not analysis of the problems which precipitated the event.

4. Narrow Response:

A narrow view of the police role means that response to problems tends to be limited to standard law enforcement strategies.

5. Means Over Ends:

An emphasis on response efficiency means inevitably that little emphasis is placed on the actual impact of policing strategies on preventing, reducing or eliminating problems: that is, efficiency is valued over effectiveness.

Despite the accomplishments of response policing, its disadvantages must be seen in terms of its limited effectiveness as a strategy for solving or managing basic and recurring policing problems in the community.

The Limits of Incident Driven Policing

As stated above, if rapid response policing changed the organizational style of policing then it also changed the nature of patrol work for individual police officers. Mobile patrol essentially removed police officers from local beats and neighbourhoods, thereby significantly reducing overall police-citizen contact. This separation from the community essentially limited police contact to “victims, suspects and offenders”. Further, contacts were usually restricted to enforcement or emergency situations. As Inspector Chris Braiden of the City of Edmonton Police Service remarks, patrol work becomes “an unknown police officer patrolling familiar buildings and unfamiliar faces.”¹

Repetitive and persistent problems were seldom resolved by responding with efficient speed and certainty. Police officers’ doubts about the limits of rapid response policing were reinforced by research results. Mobile rapid response was presumed to be effective because it provided the quickest means of responding to calls for service, while visible random patrol was thought to deter potential criminals. However, the well known Kansas City² study and similar follow-up studies, demonstrated that mobile patrol had a “limited” deterrent effect on crime and public

security. The study also showed that increased levels of mobile patrol had little impact on crime rates.

Perhaps even more surprising, were studies³ that questioned the usefulness of "rapid" police response to calls for service. These studies found that it was "citizen delays" in calling the police that were the critical factor in limiting response effectiveness. The time taken before a citizen actually calls the police was found, on average, to be 14 minutes. Because of this delay in calling the police, it was concluded that less than 5% of all "serious" crime calls could be affected in a positive way by an immediate police response. These studies also found that citizens would accept alternatives to rapid response in all but the most serious cases, as long as they were informed by police why there was no need for a rapid response and when the more appropriate response would occur.

Although the implications of these studies are still hotly debated by police professionals, this research suggests that rapid response and mobile patrol could be refined and improved, and that alternatives to rapid response and centralized mobile patrol are both possible and desirable. As a result, a variety of new approaches to conventional patrol response have been developed.

Innovative patrol strategies such as directed or targeted patrol, split force, neighbourhood "foot" patrol, and mini-stations, offer alternative deployment strategies. Attempts to limit service demand and increase patrol productivity include call screening and differential response programs which screen and categorize calls for service, limit immediate response, and free patrol officer from calls for service.

Despite the progress made in limiting reactive service demands and evolving new styles of community based patrol, many of these programs still remained wedded to providing limited "reactive" police services. The central question on how to deal more effectively with the complex and persistent problems that make up the bulk of routine police work remains unanswered. Problem Oriented Policing is one attempt to provide such an answer.

Section 2:

Problem Oriented Policing

Overview of the Problem Solving Approach

“Problem Oriented Policing focuses on solving problems rather than responding to and reporting incidents, by viewing incidents as symptoms of problems. Our goal is therefore to achieve Community Based Policing by applying the strategies and tactics of Problem Oriented Policing. Police officers will act as community team leaders in identifying problems that damage the quality of life, then work through the community as a whole to find and apply solutions to those problems.”⁴

Problem Oriented Policing was developed to address the following:

- Conventional police response deals with individual incidents or calls and not the basic problems which produce them.
- Many of the demands for police service (calls, incidents, etc.) are often related to common underlying problems.
- By responding to the “symptoms” and not basic causes, problems remain unresolved, resulting in continuing demands for police service.

Problem Oriented Policing is based primarily on the research and thinking of **Professor Herman Goldstein**, **John Eck** of the Washington-based Police Executive Research Forum, and a number of experimental projects by selected police forces in Canada and the U.S.

Using problem solving techniques and the insights and efforts of patrol officers to understand and mobilize police and community resources, problem oriented policing addresses the basic, underlying problems that create repeated demands for police service.

While routine problem solving is done by police officers at one time or another, it is infrequent, informal and limited by constraints on their time and responsibility. By formally adopting problem oriented policing, the problem solving process becomes a legitimate, valued and rewarded activity in a police force. As a result, individual police officers are better

able to identify, analyze and respond to the basic problems that routinely confront them. In police forces where problem solving has been formally implemented, it has not only improved the basic effectiveness of police response but it has also improved police officer job satisfaction.

Consistent with community policing priorities, police departments that adopt problem oriented policing become more proactive in orientation. This is because more of its resources and activities are aimed at proactive and preventive policing strategies. The community becomes more involved and, in doing so, provides added resources to the police function. As a result, patrol officers become problem solvers as well as problem responders. The Edmonton Neighbourhood Foot Patrol Project developed the following problem solving philosophy:

“While it is safe to say that we have become incident driven, we recognize the need to remove police officers from this reactive model and place them in the neighbourhoods where repeat problems originate. Simultaneously, we must permit each individual officer to use his intellect, energy, and imagination to recruit citizens, and, together with them, help shape the local environment to deal with the problem. The police officer must also assume responsibility for taking calls for service so that he is both informed and involved. A sense of ownership will surface. Together, the community and the police will become a problem solving group. Police will act as a catalyst and help the community deal with the recurring problem, rather than simply responding to individual incidents.”⁵

In summary, problem oriented policing is both a policing philosophy and operational strategy, which uses problem solving techniques in order to more effectively address routine and repetitive problems that confront police on a regular basis. In practice, “everyone does it.” As both a philosophical approach to policing generally and as an operational strategy, police professionals at all levels can engage in problem oriented policing.

Overview of The Problem Solving Process

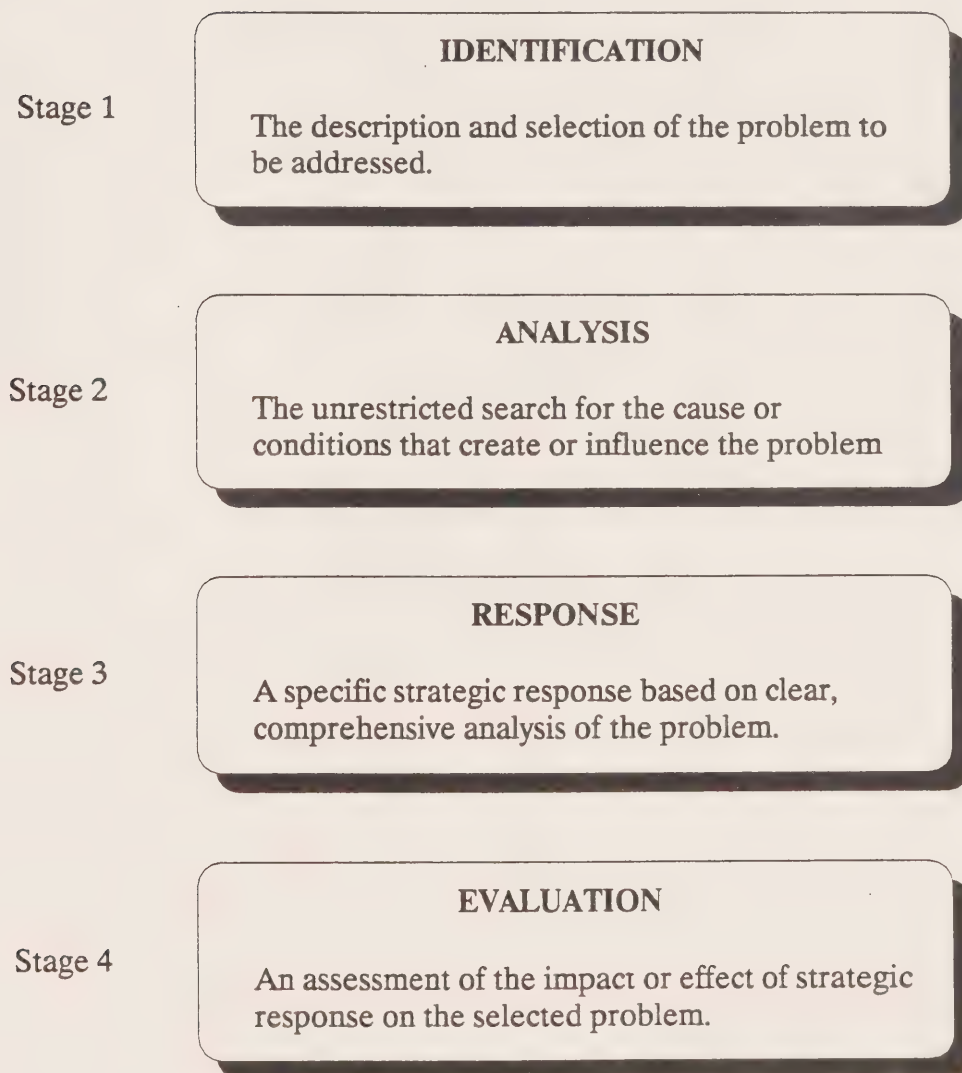
There are four distinct stages in the problem solving process:

- Stage 1: Identification
- Stage 2: Analysis

- Stage 3: Response
- Stage 4: Evaluation

While the basic problem solving process is uncomplicated it must be done in a comprehensive, systematic and creative manner. The four basic steps in the problem solving process should be followed while avoiding the natural tendency to take short cuts and adopt convenient and familiar solutions, otherwise there is little reason to believe it will be any more effective than conventional police response.

Figure 1
THE PROBLEM SOLVING PROCESS



Section 3:

Problem Identification

Defining Problems: What is a Problem?

What is meant by a problem? To qualify as an appropriate problem, there are three basic criteria that should be considered.

1. A Problem Involves a Number of Repeated or Related Incidents

Incidents which will not be repeated or do not appear to be related will not require further police action. However, if an incident or call for service is likely to be repeated, or is related to other incidents, then it constitutes an appropriate problem for problem solving. For example, repeated break and enters at the same address or a particular pattern of residential break and enters in a particular area would be appropriate problems for action.

2. The Incidents or Events Should be Related in Some Way

Problems or incidents should be related in some way, so that aspects of the individual problems can be linked or grouped together. This allows for the development of a common intervention or response strategy. For example, repeated domestic violence calls from the same address make it possible to develop a response that focuses on the cause or condition that precipitates individual calls. Other examples include: a series of thefts from parked cars in a particular parking lot; sexual assaults in a park; a series of crimes related to a particular group of individuals.

Herman Goldstein⁶ suggests it is possible to make the connection between repeated or related incidents by focusing on four key problem characteristics.

- **Behaviour:** common behaviour involved (e.g. sexual assault, noise problems, etc.).
- **Territory:** incidents that are related by location or concentrated in a specific area, (e.g. traffic accidents at a particular intersection, drug dealing in a specific neighbourhood.)

- **Persons:** Problems or incidents that are shared or perpetrated by a specific group or type of people. These can be offenders (drug dealers), complainants (apartment dwellers) or victims (the elderly).
- **Time:** incidents or events related by their occurrence at a particular time, season, day of the week, etc. For example, thefts of family allowance cheques at the end of the month.

While most problems will be a mixture of a number of these characteristics (i.e., repeated mail thefts from the elderly in a low income apartment building by juveniles), a problem should have at least one of these characteristics to qualify.

3. The Problem Must be of Concern to the Community and to the Police

The problems to be selected should be of concern to both the community and the police force. Community is broadly defined, “as any group of citizens who share a common interest in a specific policing problem”.⁷ This does not necessarily mean a majority of citizens, nor does it imply that they must have common values or backgrounds. It is simply a “community of interest”, sharing a common problem. While internal police problems related to the operation or running of the department may be amenable to problem solving, the fundamental objective is “community” problem solving.

However, the selected problem should also be seen by the police as a “police” problem. It must be something about which the police have the capacity to do something about, and in which they have a legitimate role. A broad definition of the police role suggests that any crime or public order problem could be considered a legitimate concern.

We can now provide a clear definition of a problem. A “problem” is....“...a group of incidents occurring in a community that are similar in one or more ways and are of concern to the public and police”.⁸

Who Identifies Problems?

Having established what a suitable problem looks like, it is important to suggest who should be consulted as part of the problem identification process.

1. The Community

The most obvious source of problem identification resides with the community and its citizens. Individually, citizens initially identify problems through calls for service. When they are repeated or related, they are an indication of a problem in need of resolution. In addition, organized groups of citizens often identify issues or problems of broad concern. Some police forces like the Metropolitan Toronto Police have conducted neighbourhood surveys in order to gauge community problems. In Edmonton, Windsor, Victoria, and Halton Region, individual citizens can walk into neighbourhood store fronts or mini stations and identify local area problems to local foot patrol officers. The variety of ways in which the community can communicate problems is limited only by the receptiveness of the police.

2. Police Organization

Police forces, and those who manage them, possess a great deal of information that allows them to identify community problems. Problems can be identified by the following force personnel who have access to in-house information systems.

- **Criminal investigation personnel** are valuable sources of information on incidents which are criminal in nature.
- **Crime prevention and community relations personnel**, who liaise with community professionals and the volunteer sectors of the community, can provide valuable information on issues of concern to the community.
- **Crime analysis units** are particularly useful in identifying existing general trends or emerging problems as they often conduct this kind of analysis.
- **Victims units** and other personnel assigned to work closely with victims of crime will have unique insight into their specific problems and concerns.
- **Management committees** at the division, detachment, or force level, are also useful sources for information on problems. For example, the Ontario Provincial Police utilize Detachment Planning Committees not only to identify problems but also to design potential solutions.

- **Communication or management information systems** can be an important source of problem identification. For example, Edmonton police utilized their computerized information system to locate the busiest call for service areas in the city and also identified those addresses that generated repeated calls for service.

3. Patrol Officers

Perhaps the most useful and least utilized source of problem identification are individual patrol officers. Though seldom consulted, patrol officers are often in the best position to identify emerging and existing problems on their beats or in their patrol districts. This is especially true in police forces that have adopted a “community based” style of policing, because they assign officers to specific districts or neighbourhoods in order to maximize community contact and information. For example, in Edmonton the foot patrol officers who work restricted beats are easily able to identify local neighbourhood problems. One Edmonton foot patrol officer put it this way:

“I know what’s going down on my beat. I know who the criminals are, where they live, what they do. I know most of the people who live in this area and they know me. If there is something bothering them they let me know.”

Whatever the mode of patrol, front-line police officers have a wealth of untapped information on a variety of problems that should be part of the problem identification process. This consultation is important as in many cases they will often be asked to implement all or part of the solution.

Selecting Problems

The process of identifying problems will invariably yield more problems than can be addressed. Given limited resources it is clearly necessary to assign some priority to the problems identified. This means a selection criteria should be established. Goldstein⁹ suggests the following factors should be considered when selecting which problems should be worked on:

- the **impact** of the problem - how big a problem is it?, how many people are affected?, etc.

- the **seriousness** of the problem - how much danger, damage, public concern, political visibility? What are the consequences for the community and the police force? Is it a public or political issue which has an impact on police -community relations.
- the **complexity** of the problem - How complex or deep rooted is this problem? What are the resource implications for the department?
- the **solvability** of the problem - What degree of impact can police efforts have on the problem?
- the **interest** in solving the problem - Despite the validity of the problem, there must be interest by both the police force and the community or public in resolving this issue.

After consideration of these various issues for each of the problems identified, a refined list of problems should be developed. This list should then be examined by a **problem identification group** and priority assigned to each.

At the end of this problem identification and selection stage, each problem selected for attention should be clearly described in a formal, written statement, with the reasons given for selecting it as a priority. This statement is important because after problems are first identified, preliminary investigation of the problem often changes its initial classification and priority.

The following is an example of a problem statement used in planning a crime prevention program.

Figure 2
**An Example Of A Problem Statement
For Burglary¹⁰**

Frequency

In 1976, 11,835 cases of residential and non-residential burglary were reported to the police in Seattle. Local victimization studies recorded 16,992 residential burglaries or one for every 12 residents. The 2,965 reported commercial burglaries represented a risk rate of one for every 4.5 business establishments.

Seriousness

Burglary represents an invasion of personal security as well as property loss. A Seattle victimization study found that citizens fear burglary more than any other crime. Burglary is among the most serious of all property crimes not only because of its cost in terms of dollar loss but also because of the element of force and intrusion involved. Victims of burglary often react strongly, reporting feelings that they and their homes have been violated.

Relative Threat of Offender Group

Persons arrested for burglary in 1974 averaged 2 arrests per arrestee over a 32-month period. This arrest rate exceeds that associated with all other property crime arrestees.

Reduction Potential

Approximately 30 to 40 percent of residential burglaries involved entry through unlocked doors and windows. While it is difficult to significantly reduce burglary rates (in part because burglars tend to choose dwellings that are unoccupied and afford little opportunity for surveillance) some reduction is possible through better door and window security, measures to simulate occupancy, and increased citizen action, including surveillance. An indication that the city's response to burglary can be improved is that reported burglary decreased by approximately 8 percent from 1974 to 1975 and an additional 9 percent in 1976.

System Response

Because only about half of residential burglaries are reported by victims the criminal justice system loses numerous opportunities to identify and deal with burglars. Approximately 87 percent of all burglaries are not solved - the lowest rate among serious crimes.

Section 4:

Analysis Of The Problem

Having identified and described the problem, the next step is to investigate the problem by gathering and interpreting problem specific information.

Information Gathering

Effective problem solving requires a commitment to gathering diverse and comprehensive information. This process should not be restricted to conventional police sources. The thoroughness of this information gathering process will depend on:

- what information is already known
- how complex the problem is
- available time or human resources to conduct the analysis.

Clearly, the bigger and more complex the problem the more sophisticated its information and analysis requirements. Because we are interested in all aspects of the problem, a broad definition of the scope of the problem should be considered initially and only later refined by our analysis.

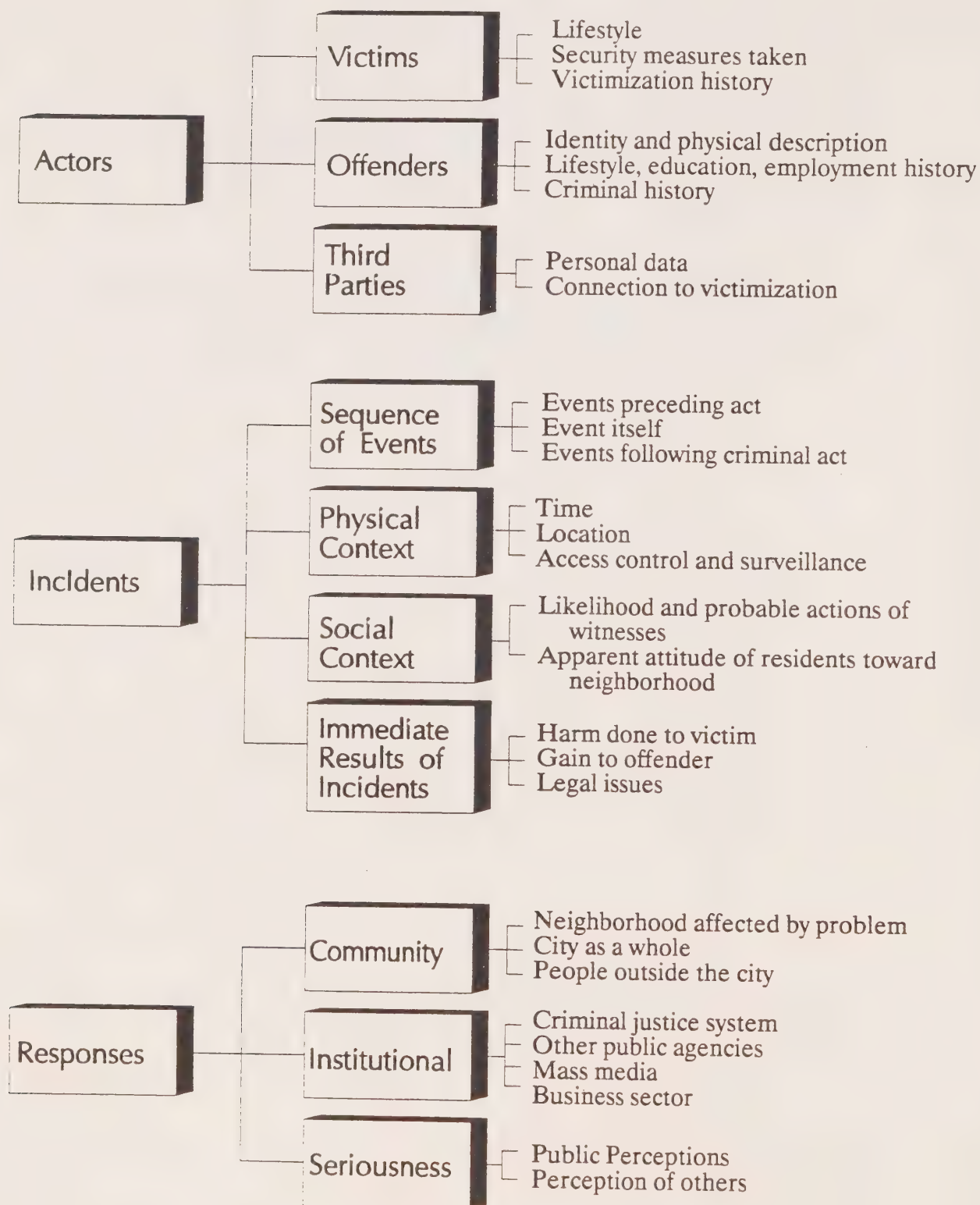
In order to establish the kind of information that needs to be gathered it is useful to develop a systematic checklist. The Newport News Police Department problem oriented policing project organized their information gathering process by focusing on the following:¹¹

- **Actors** involved in the problem: victims, offenders and witnesses
- **Incident** information such as sequence of events, social and physical context, effects etc.
- **Responses** by community and its institutions

These three elements of problem analysis are described in more detail in Figure 3.

Information Sources

Figure 3
THE PROBLEM ANALYSIS GUIDE ¹²



As part of problem analysis, a variety of potential information sources can be tapped. The following is a list of some of these information sources.

1. Library

The recent growth of research on crime and policing has created a valuable but seldom utilized body of relevant research information. This information is located in public, university, and institutional libraries, and is easily accessible through computerized topic searches or published bibliographies.

2. Police Files

Police forces gather, record and process enormous amounts of information on a variety of problems. Unfortunately this information is often collected for a variety of specific purposes unrelated to problem solving. Police data often requires some adaption to meet the analytic needs of problem solving. For example, when the Edmonton Police Service wished to identify repeat calls for service, they had to reprogram their existing computerized information system. This provided a rich body of previously unused information which proved invaluable for identifying specific neighbourhood problems.

3. Police Officers

The knowledge and information possessed by police officers is inevitably greater than what is written in formal reports. Personal knowledge gained from experience can often be insightful and perceptive. Therefore every attempt should be made to collect information directly from the police officers who deal in some way with the selected problem.

4. Other Police Forces

It is probable that the particular problem selected has already been addressed by another police force. Therefore there is the possibility that information, analysis and strategies may have already been developed which may be useful for the analysis of the problem.

5. Community Sources

A wide variety of potentially valuable sources exist within the community, particularly those directly influenced by the problem. These sources include victims, complainants, witnesses, or community agencies and institutions such as municipal or social services. Valuable information can be gained by questioning those affected or by holding public meetings with community groups. At a more formal level, municipal, provincial and federal governments also collect a variety of information on different aspects of community and neighbourhood life. This information is often freely and readily available.

Information Analysis

Crime Analysis

In order to make police force information more accessible and useful, some police forces are developing specialized crime analysts functions. It is their specific job to collect and analyze information from police files in order to find patterns or relationships in the data for either management or operational purposes. Crime analysis can be complex and sophisticated, requiring the use of computers and statistical methods, or it can be as simple as a pin map and a box of index cards. A separate report in this series focuses on how to do crime analysis.¹³

Crime analysis typically relies on police and crime data as the basis of analysis. Because the problem oriented approach adopts a broad contextual definition of the problem to be addressed, information gathering and analysis should extend beyond standard official police and crime data. For example, a "break and enter problem" would typically limit crime analysis to examining patterns or relationships in officially reported break and enters. A problem solving approach would broaden the definition of the problem to include information on the patrol area, victims, suspects and common crime characteristics. This approach expands the relevant information sources to be addressed to social survey data on the area, victim interviews, offender profiles, housing information etc.

Documenting Current Police Response

Most problems selected will be of a recurring or repetitive nature. This suggests that past police responses may not have been effective. Before

developing new strategies some attention should be given to understanding why existing or past practices have not worked. This is an important part of problem analysis, because documenting and analyzing force response often reveals critical information about the problem and hints about alternative strategies.

Section 5:

Strategic Response

Having selected a problem, collected the information, and completed the analysis, it is now time to do something about the problem. The range of possible responses is limited only by our imagination and a careful analysis of the problem. Consequently there should be an emphasis on a **broad and creative** search for problem solutions, because many of the problems selected have been resistant to traditional strategies.

Problem solving strategies should be **problem specific**; strategic responses designed to fit a precise analysis of a problem. For example specific problem solving strategies designed to deal with residential theft will be more effective when based on a detailed analysis of a particular theft problem, rather than a more generalized response from a broad crime prevention program. Successful problem solving has demonstrated that the specificity of the response strategy is the key to effectiveness.

Strategic Objectives

Not all strategies can hope to accomplish the same objectives. The following are strategic objectives that should be considered when developing a problem solving strategy.

- *Solutions designed to totally **eliminate** a problem:*
Usually small, simple problems, involving few people and police resources.
- *Solutions to substantially **reduce** a problem:*
Persistent, deep rooted problems that cannot realistically be eliminated entirely, but can still be affected by police strategies (e.g., drug abuse).
- *Solutions to **reduce harm or impact** of a problem:*
Where it is difficult for police to reduce or eliminate the incidence of particular problem, but where their efforts can do a great deal for victims (e.g., domestic violence).
- *Solutions designed to **improve police response** to problems:*
Complex “societally” based problems (e.g., the homeless, runaways)

where simply improving police service or response is the only realistic and appropriate goal.

- ***Solutions to redefine problem responsibility:***

Ways of returning misplaced responsibility to agencies that generate problems, (e.g., false alarms, shoplifting and private security, etc.).

Response Options

While it is impossible to list all available responses to the wide range of problems that police face, it is possible to look at the **types of response** that might be considered in responding to a problem. The following is a list of types of police response strategies that have been developed by various police forces and researchers.¹⁴

1. Focused Strategies

Police strategies that are focused on those who are at the core of a larger police problem; for example repeat offenders or addresses, multiple victims, etc. Focused strategies are based on the principle that a small number (of offenders or victims) can be responsible for a disproportionate share of a larger problem. Strategies that focus on this “core population” will have a more pronounced effect than broader based strategies which direct limited resources towards the whole problem population. For example, police prevention and apprehension strategies focused on repeat offenders are assumed to be more efficient and effective than efforts aimed at a larger suspect population, as repeat offenders commit more crimes, more frequently. For example, Edmonton Police found that 21 addresses in that city accounted for approximately 58% of all calls for service. This fact allowed them to focus police resources on areas with high rates of repeat calls or complaints (81% of all calls).

2. Inter-Agency Strategies

It may be appropriate to develop co-ordinated response strategies with community agencies and institutions that are involved in similar problems. These strategies can range from simple referrals to encouraging agencies to play a greater role in responding to shared problems. For example, when faced with an acute drug problem in a particular area of the city, the Halifax police have developed an inter-agency and community task force to analyze and address the problem. This approach is

based on the assumption that a shared problem requires a shared police-community response in order to be effective.¹⁵

3. Mediation strategies

Police are often in a position to “mediate” community problems and disputes. In some situations mediation rather than law enforcement may ultimately be a far more effective use of police resources. For example:

“A university fraternity house became the object of a number of complaints from a resident living close by. One resident was circulating a petition to have the house occupants evicted. Weekly parties would spill onto the street, and noise, littering and traffic congestion were the main concerns. The constable brought the complainant and the fraternity house representative together for Community Mediation (a service provided by the City of Edmonton Social Services Department). It was mutually agreed that the regular party schedule would be halved, the number of party goers would be restricted, and the parties indoors would be kept indoors. No further complaints have been received.”¹⁶

4. Information, Communication, Education Strategies

Many problems can be positively influenced through the strategic communication of problem related information. Lack of information or misinformation about neighbourhood crime and order problems sometimes leads to a lack of public interest in crime prevention, unrealistic fears of crime, or excessive community demands for police service. However, too often the public information/education is not seen by police as an important strategy or indeed responsibility. Surveys show that people rely on the media and not the police for crime related information.

However when appropriate police information is communicated in combination with other police strategies, it can be a particularly effective problem solving strategy. For example an Edmonton neighbourhood police officer addressed the problem of repeat thefts from a community college by initially conducting a series of public education programs designed to make students and staff aware of the seize and nature of the problem. This made it possible for him to convince school authorities

and students to adopt a variety of prevention strategies, while he pursued more traditional enforcement efforts. The combination of communication and enforcement strategies resulted in a dramatic reduction in thefts and a number of related arrests.

5. Community Mobilization Strategies

Strategies that involve resources other than the police are central to problem oriented policing. Where possible the community should have an active role in police policy and programs. There are of course a wide variety of possible strategies available to mobilise the community. Crime prevention units are particularly skilled in these strategies. However as a basic principle, involving a particular community of shared interests will be more effective than involving broader community groups and organizations who have little direct involvement in the specific problem under review.

6. Encouraging Community Control

The police do not have exclusive control and responsibility over all aspects of community law and order. There exist types of "informal" community control that are capable of affecting many problems that police must deal with. For example parents, apartment managers, contractors, building owners etc, all have some authority and influence over their children, employees or properties. If supported and encouraged these forms of control are often more effective than police based control. For example working with apartment managers to police their tenants more carefully can substantially reduce the need for police involvement.

"Through meetings held with his community, another constable identified a major concern of residents in this area. Their major concern focused on the continuing problem of theft from vehicles and vandalism occurring in the neighbourhood. As a result of this, the constable organized meetings in the local community hall and requested volunteers to patrol their residential areas in the evenings. Their role would be to act as the eyes and ears of the community and to deter criminals from conducting illegal activities. Volunteers would be identified with reflective vests which display the words "Community Foot Patrol". Funding was received from a business in the area to purchase the vests."¹⁷

7. Use of Non-Criminal Laws and Regulations

Many problems are often subject to various private and public regulations, laws or statutes. Though not part of the criminal law, these regulations are nevertheless binding, and may be used by police to help solve problems. Creative use of these rules and regulations can often be a more effective and appropriate means of dealing with a difficult problem than the often limited access of the criminal law. Thus building codes can address crime prevention problems, noise bylaws can be used to deal with unruly tenants, health regulations can close down restaurants that sell drugs, etc.

8. Crime Prevention Strategies

There now exists a large number of tested crime prevention strategies with proven preventive effects on specific policing problems. After a careful analysis of the problem, an appropriate strategy or tactic can be chosen. The list (see Figure 4) of possible crime prevention strategies illustrates the range of responses that may be appropriate for a particular problem.

Recent advances in crime analysis and evaluation of various crime prevention strategies has led to the development of prevention strategies that are targeted to very specific problem situations. "Situational crime prevention"¹⁸ while similar in philosophy to more general crime prevention programs, produces targeted strategies designed to fit specific problems.

10. More Discriminate Use of Law Enforcement

"An apartment complex had experienced a rash of thefts from mail boxes involving welfare cheques. The NFP officer contacted the post office and learned the exact date and time that the cheques would next be delivered by the mailman. The management of the complex supplied the officer with a room that had a view of the mail boxes which are all in a single room. The constable was familiar with the residents of this complex and knew who should be expected to pick up the mail. From the hidden location, he observed a mail box being pried open and two persons were apprehended."¹⁹

Figure 4
CRIME PREVENTION TACTICS*²⁰

Direct Resident Activities

- | | |
|---|---|
| • Police/Community Boards | • Neighbourhood Beats |
| • Street Observation | • Police Mini-Stations |
| • Privately Sponsored Hotlines | • Crime Analysis Units |
| • Block Clubs | • Police Department Environmental Design Review |
| • Tenant Organizations Block Watch | • Community Service Officers |
| • Block Watch Variations | • Police/Community Boards |
| • Apartment Watch | • Police/Community Relations Programs |
| • Citizen Patrols | • Street Observation |
| • Radio Patrols | • Crime Prevention Educational Projects |
| • Escort Services | • Police Telephone Projects |
| • Block Houses | • Victimization Surveys |
| • Victimization Surveys | • Home Security Surveys |
| • Home Security Surveys | • Operation ID |
| • WhistleSTOP | • Police Directional Aids |
| • Operation ID | • Crime Prevention for Business |
| • Neighbourhood Directories | |
| • Self-Defence Courses | |
| • Police Directional Aids | |
|
• Working within the Criminal Justice System | • Changing the Physical Environment |
| • Police/Community Boards | • Police Department Environmental Design Review |
| • Victim/Witness Assistance Programs | • Home Security Surveys |
| • Court Watch | • Improving Street Lighting |
| • Crime Hotlines | • Changing Traffic Patterns |
| • Crime Reporting Projects | • Police Directional Aids |
| | • Neighborhood Clean-up |
| | • Installing Emergency Telephones |
| | • Crime Prevention for Business |

* When tactics can be appropriately placed in more than one column, they have been listed in each.

Many problems are best addressed by using traditional police methods, such as enforcement, arrest, prosecution or more proactive efforts such as sting operations, crackdowns, etc. However, before such solutions are adopted, analysis should be able to identify why these strategies have failed to deal effectively with the problem in the past, and how new variations will improve on past performance.

Implementation Plan

When the problem has been selected, analysis completed and a strategy adopted, it is then appropriate to develop an implementation plan to guide the response and provide a basis for future evaluation. A written statement of the goals, objectives, strategies and time frames involved provides a useful guide for implementation and basis for monitoring and evaluating the strategy.

Figure 5 provides an example of an implementation plan. A variety of other strategies and objectives could be developed. The main point is to articulate as clearly as possible what each strategy is supposed to accomplish, and the measures that will be used to evaluate their impact.

Figure 5²¹

IMPLEMENTATION PLAN

Goal: Reduce Drug Use In Newburg High

Objective 1: To change student attitudes toward drug use in high school students in order to make them less supportive of drug use and drug dealing.

Strategy: Police and teacher based drug information and education program to be conducted on a regular basis for all students throughout the school year.

Evaluation Measures: Qualitative data: student and teacher interviews, observations etc., Quantitative data: survey given before and after program to all students to measure attitude change.

Objective 2: Increase parental supervision and control on youth activities after school in order to limit opportunities for drug use and enhance parental influence and pro-social values, etc.

Strategy: Increase communication and information from police and school on drug use and its impact on children, through both written material and a series of meeting sponsored by the school and the P.T.A., use police and community experts to alert parents.

Measure: Qualitative; discussions and interviews with parents and youth. Quantitative survey of parental attitude and supervision practice before and after, interviews with arrested users, etc.

Objective 3: Decrease availability of drugs in order to decrease drug use and dealing on school property by supporting and enhancing school policing.

Strategy: Enhance school security by training teachers to increase surveillance and limited policing, form student school patrol groups, set up school "tips" program, assign an officer to the school, encourage information exchange.

Measures: Qualitative; visibility of drug use and dealing. Quantitative: compare arrests, charges, reports of drug related crimes both in school and surrounding area.

Section 6: Evaluation

The purpose of problem oriented policing is to have an impact on a particular problem. Therefore, the final step of the process is to address what “effect” the problem solving strategy has had on the selected problem. In other words, did the strategies used have the desired impact on the problem?

Reasons for Evaluating the Impact

There are a number of reasons why it is important to evaluate problem solving strategies. The most important is simply to assess whether the problem solving strategy is working. No police force can afford to use valuable resources without having a clear idea whether they are being used productively. Just having a firm opinion that things work is not very convincing. These days cost conscious governments and professional police managers are looking for facts, not opinions. This means that some method of providing **proof** or at least some form of **evidence** of a particular strategy’s effectiveness is required.

Points on Evaluation

Depending on the scale of the problem and the strategies developed, evaluation methods can be complex and sophisticated or relatively simple and straightforward. Evaluation methods are described in a number of books, texts and another report in this series.²² However there are some general points about evaluating problem oriented strategies that are worth emphasizing.

1. Process and Impact Evaluation:

There are two main types of evaluation to consider as part of any project; both are important for different reasons.

- **Process** evaluation is concerned with providing a descriptive “analysis of the implementation” of the strategies, or what was actually done to solve the particular problem.

- **Impact** evaluation assesses the consequences or outcomes of problem solving strategies on the stated objectives, or the effect of the strategy on the problem.

2. Planning:

Evaluation issues and questions should be addressed **before** programs or strategies are implemented. Evaluation considerations should be part of the original project design or plan. The nature and method of data required to do the evaluation has to be established prior to the implementation.

3. Clear Goals and Objectives:

The more clearly articulated the goals and objectives of the problem solving strategy, the easier it is to evaluate outcomes. Vague objectives tend to produce equally vague and unconvincing proof. Specificity or precision in describing programmatic or strategic goals is an important part of a sound evaluation.

4. Realistic Project Goals:

Developing realistic goals for a project or response strategy is also necessary for sound evaluation. Using precise terms such as “eliminate, reduce, or influence” should be used to set realistic and achievable objectives. Do not only state the ideal or maximum objective of a program, as success will then be evaluated only against this ideal. Thus a proposal to eliminate drug use, while ideal, is less likely to be accomplished than a “reduction in drug use for a specific target population”. By breaking down large problems into smaller subproblems, a more realistic and measurable set of objectives can be developed.

5. Impact Data:

Impact evaluations should have data on the outcomes of programs, (arrests, charges, etc.) which can be compared to either the same population before the program or a comparable “control” population are not subject to the same strategy. Comparative data requires some base line data, or “before and after” data, against which your programs’ success or failure can be measured. So crime rates, convictions, calls for service, etc. should be available before implementing the program in order to have something to measure progress against. Thus Edmonton police use

“before and after” comparisons of repeat calls for specific areas or addresses as measures of the impact of problem solving strategies.

6. Implementation Data:

While measuring the effect or outcome of a project is primary, it is also important to gather data and information on the implementation process. What was actually done and how was it done? Without some information on implementation process it is often impossible to explain why a particular strategy worked or failed. Good programs or strategies can be poorly or incorrectly implemented, and as result have little problem solving impact. For example; a recent survey done on a particular community policing program found little evidence of program impact. However, rather than conclude that the program had failed, process data and analysis allowed the police department to recognize that it was the failure to actually implement critical parts of the program that explained the lack of visible impact.

7. Outside Resources:

Complex evaluation may be necessary if the program or strategy attempted is complex and the problem deep rooted. Such problems may require complex data and sophisticated analysis. Depending on the resources of the department it may be worthwhile to consult with experts in evaluation techniques about the appropriate methods to use. Ideally, outside university or consultant evaluators have the expertise and objectivity to ensure reliable and publicly acceptable results.

Evaluation as the End Point

The evaluation of a response strategy concludes the problem solving process. Despite this detailed discussion, it should be emphasized that the problem solving process is basically a straightforward, logical sequence of steps including: problem, definition, analysis, response and evaluation. The application of problem solving techniques in a systematic and organized fashion can simply involve individual officers dealing with a specific problem on their beat. Alternatively, problem solving teams could address deep rooted and persistent community problems. The results from police departments who have adopted problem solving techniques indicate that while problem solving may not eliminate all of Constable Smith's frustrations, it may provide her with

more tangible evidence that her best efforts can have a real impact on the repetitive problems that all police officers must routinely face.

Conclusion

Problem oriented policing seeks to improve modern policing by emphasizing a proactive and analytical police response to repetitive and deep rooted community problems. Rather than exclusively focusing on offenders as the source of police problems or on arrest and prosecution as the solution, problem solving expands the focus of police efforts to address the full range of causes or conditions that created these problems. This approach requires expanding the traditional repertoire of police responses. These encompass a broad range of problem solving strategies such as community mobilization, inter-agency coordination, use of civil and other regulatory powers, mediation, etc.

Essentially, problem solving requires police officers to acquire or use their existing skills in analyzing problems and devising creative solutions. An ability to function independently, display initiative, and possess a flexible and imaginative approach to police work are necessary personal qualities for effective problem solving. For Example; Edmonton police listed the following qualities as requirements for problem oriented neighborhood patrol officers: self motivated, independent, innovative, energetic, extroverted, imaginative and hard working.²³

By emphasizing new or previously under-utilized job skills, problem oriented policing also requires modifications in the way people and their work are organized and managed. Traditional command and control strategies are likely to conflict with a style of policing that encourages independence and initiative. A supervisory style that is directive yet encourages initiative and rewards inventive approaches to problem solving seems to work best. More a coach than a commander, the supervisor inspires and encourages individual accomplishment by teaching, guiding and rewarding effort and sound judgment. It is the supervisor's job to create a supportive and organizationally rewarding environment for effective problem solving.

In addition to changing the supervisory style of the department, problem oriented policing suggests a number of organizational changes may be necessary to support effective problem solving. A recent report on corporate strategies for policing suggest the following functional capabilities help facilitate successful problem oriented policing.²⁴

- Sophisticated answering and call-screening capabilities to preserve time for activities other than responding to calls for service.
- Generalists patrol officers who are as comfortable outside their cars as in, and as capable of organizing meetings and mediating disputes as of making arrests.
- Analytical and intelligence capabilities that can discern both nagging community problems and activities of dangerous, sophisticated offenders.
- Sufficient flexibility in deployment and capability to deal with different sizes and kinds of problems.

Inevitably, changes in the philosophy, organization and administrative style of police forces will create tensions and conflict both within and outside their departments. Choosing the correct strategy for implementing problem oriented policing depends on factors like the extent of change required, the time frame involved and capacity of the department to effect such changes.

A department wide approach attempts to change **all members** of the department into problem solvers, irrespective of rank or function. While difficult to manage and slow to bring about, this approach promises in the long run to be the most effective and internally consistent model of problem oriented policing.

An alternative but more restrictive approach is to create special problem solving units who act as consultants or support to other operational functions. While less demanding and more manageable, this approach may marginalize problem solving as a specialized function and have a limited impact on the effectiveness of the department as a whole.

Irrespective of the particular implementation strategy adopted, introducing and managing problem oriented policing requires the modern police executive to develop a management style that is characterized by leadership, flexibility, communication skills and personal commitment. These qualities are required to meet the challenge of managing problem oriented policing in the current police environment.

"These conclusions suggest the shape of a future corporate strategy of policing. It might be called "professional, strategic, community, problem-solving policing." It is a challenging task for

The Key Characteristics of Successful Innovation²⁵

A recent study of 37 “innovative” criminal justice projects conducted for the U.S. National Institute of Justice found the following characteristics were critical to the success of the projects they reviewed. (Ellickson, Petersilia et al., 1983).

- sincere motivation at adoption
- support from top management
- staff competence
- a benefit/cost surplus
- clarity of the innovations goals and procedures
- clear line of authority

police executives to realize such a vision. They must overcome the powerful claims of tradition in articulating the mission and organizing their departments. They must override the desires and expectations of many of their employees who have different visions of policing. They must cope with powerful external pressures to produce the illusion of accountability through rigid, centralized management. And, most important, they must cope with their own uncertainties about the best way to use the assets of their organization to produce decent, civil, tolerant communities. It is up to today's police executives to find the solution".²⁶

Despite the difficulty in meeting the challenge posed by introducing problem oriented policing, the problems of failing to respond effectively to escalating and unresolved crime and order problems are even greater. Problem oriented policing offers modern policing one more tool to address the difficult job of solving and containing the crime and order problems that undermine our communities as safe places to live and work.

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As the title implies, this is a comprehensive review and critique of the research and evidence for crime prevention.

COMMUNITY POLICING

Shaping the Future

WORKING WITH THE COMMUNITY



Ministry of the
Solicitor General and
Correctional Services

Working with the Community

A manual for building police-community partnerships

Ministry of the Solicitor General
and Correctional Services of Ontario
and
Ministry of the Solicitor General
of Canada

A.R.A. Consultants

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Preface

Working with the Community was prepared for the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario by A.R.A. Consultants.

This report is part of a series of manuals on community policing produced jointly by the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario and the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada. The objective of the series is to provide information on the implementation of community policing, focusing on planning, management processes, training and operational strategies. These reports are designed for use by all members of the police services, police services boards, community groups, students of policing/criminology, educational facilities, police college instructors, and government officials.

The ministries wish to express their appreciation to the police managers and officers who have contributed to the report.

Barry Leighton & Marsha Mitzak
Series Editors

NOTE: *The views expressed in this report are those of the author and not necessarily those of the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario or the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada.*

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Table of Contents

Working With The Community - Beyond Community Relations	2
What Is The Community?	3
Problems Faced In Connecting With The Community	5
Mobilizing The Community	8
Examples Of Community Initiatives	16
Shared Responsibility	20

Working With The Community

This report is intended to assist police forces which are committed to building a police-community partnership to prevent crime and address community problems. It assumes that the reader has already reviewed the paper “Developing Community Profiles,” included in this kit. This latter paper identifies the type of information needed and how to get it, in order to begin to build a mutually beneficial relationship with the community.

The topics addressed in this report include:

- working with the community – beyond community relations;
- what is the community?
- problems faced in connecting with the community;
- reaching out to the community;
- roles and responsibilities;
- community representation;
- finding out what’s going on;
- who to involve, when and how;
- problem solving;
- community meetings; and
- maintaining and monitoring.

Working With The Community - Beyond Community Relations

Since the very nature of police work is providing a service to the community, it makes good sense for a police force to work at developing a co-operative police-community relationship. As every good police officer knows, the job goes well beyond identifying and apprehending suspects. A community expects a lot of its police as problem solvers and preservers of the peace. In fact, the quality of life in a community depends greatly on the quality of its policing service.

The most effective method of providing police service is one in which the community has a say in deciding its own policing needs. In such situations, the police establish a co-operative partnership, working with the community rather than for it.

Too often, in the face of fiscal restraint and ever-increasing demands for service, police managers actually feel that they are working at odds with the community.

Working either “for” or “against” the community can establish an “us-them” working style which inevitably leads to conflict; and, from a police perspective, if you take the sole responsibility for crime fighting, you must also take total responsibility if crime is not reduced. The community shares the responsibility for dealing with crime and the maintenance of order. If the community does not work with you and you do not work with the community, your work is more difficult and is unlikely to result in effective change. The odds are, the problems will get worse rather than better.

The police are in a position to provide the necessary leadership in facilitating effective and co-operative efforts to enhance crime prevention and the maintenance of order. Police have a responsibility to mobilize the community to become involved in all aspects of effective policing, including:

- identifying and addressing community problems;
- crime prevention activities;

- crime reporting; and
- acting as witnesses.

Working in partnership, with common goals and complementary strategies, the police and the community can deal more effectively and efficiently with crime than either can do on their own.

Essentially, then, working with the community is not simply an exercise in public relations. It is an important tool for the police to employ in order to successfully do their job. The benefits include not only the information, co-operation and programs required for effectively dealing with crime, but can also include the support required to supplement limited resources. The active participation of community members in crime prevention activities, for instance, may reduce the amount of time police personnel are required for routine prevention activities. As well, if such crime prevention activities are successful, police are able to concentrate their efforts on a smaller number of crimes and possibly enhance their success at solving crimes or concentrate their efforts at working with chronic problem situations which, over time, demand a considerable amount of police resources.

Similarly, enhanced partnership generally leads to more accurate appreciation of the constraints on and the needs of police forces. Police governing bodies can then be addressed by joint police-community groups with greater likelihood of presenting agreed upon suggestions for change.

What Is The Community?

In most cases, the geographical area for which you are responsible is quite diverse. It may include many different types of housing, socio-economic groups, and people with different backgrounds or concerns. It may include both residents and people who come into the area to work, shop or play but who do not live there. This latter group will likely have a different set of concerns and perhaps different level of commitment to the area than will residents.

In some areas, you may find clearly defined “neighbourhoods” - areas in which people may know each other - may share similar backgrounds, beliefs or interests. Other areas may be sparsely populated or heavily industrialized and more difficult to conceive of as a community.

It is unlikely that any one approach to maintaining order and preventing and solving crime will work in all the various “communities” which constitute your geographical area of responsibility.

For this reason, one of the first steps in working effectively with a community involves breaking down your geographical area of responsibility into smaller areas that can be clearly defined. It is not as overwhelming to identify and address the problems of one neighbourhood as it is to deal with a whole city. In fact, it is consistent with the police practice of delegating responsibility – you likely already operate on the basis of districts, divisions or zones. Traditionally, however, these distinctions have focused solely on geographical boundaries. What community policing calls for is the development of somewhat smaller areas of responsibility and consideration of “neighbourhoods” and the social fabric of an area. And even if you do not operate on the basis of zones, you can identify those neighbourhoods which need to be addressed.

Once such communities are defined, you can develop a “profile” of the area during which you:

- identify and interact with key leaders, service providers and formal and informal community organizations;
- identify problems and priorities as seen by the community;

- identify the diverse groups in the community and their varying interests and concerns.

Once the activities involved in developing the profile are undertaken, you will have already established the important first contact with the community and established the basis for co-operative interaction and partnership.

Problems Faced In Connecting With The Community

Sometimes, you are faced with problems in establishing effective relationships. This can happen for a variety of reasons:

- citizens and community groups may be apathetic – not particularly interested in becoming involved;
- small vocal interest groups may dominate your interaction with the community – leaving you little time to reach a broader segment of the community;
- some citizens or groups may feel antagonistic toward the police and you have so far been unsuccessful in bridging the gap to effective interaction;
- some police officers may feel antagonistic toward segments of the community and you have so far been unsuccessful in overcoming the barriers this creates;
- some police officers may feel ill-equipped to deal effectively with citizens or community groups in the ways required for effective community policing; and
- you may be overwhelmed by work load and limited resources and not feel able to find the time or resources to effectively plan and implement community policing strategies.

If the latter point is your experience, then it is critical that you take the time now to plan and implement strategies required to work effectively with the community. Work load is not going to decrease – in fact, it is likely to increase. Resources are not likely to meet the growing demands of effective policing – unless you rely on the resources of your community.

Each of the other problems can be dealt with, but it requires police administrators who plan, actively participate in implementation, and delegate responsibility to the officer on the street.

Citizen apathy is not uncommon. Research shows that the Canadian public has a greater fear of crime than is actually warranted by the statistics. Such fear can lead to feelings of isolation and helplessness. People may lock their doors and bar their windows, but see no way to really deal with the problems that exist in their communities. Such feelings of helplessness and hence non-involvement can be changed. With information on the nature and amount of crime in their community and a forum for becoming involved, citizens can be motivated. Research demonstrates that the majority of the Canadian public have a high regard for police; police are trusted and respected. Recent “grass-roots” efforts by citizens to become involved in dealing with problems such as impaired driving and drugs demonstrates a growing interest in solving such problems. Such efforts suggest that communities are no longer willing to tolerate threats to their quality of life. The police can capitalize on this development through demonstrated leadership in working with the community.

In general, the public responds positively to increased police visibility. While enhanced visibility may not be the most cost-effective crime prevention technique, it does enhance the public’s sense of safety and well-being. In some situations, such a step may help mobilize community involvement. This does not mean, however, that you just increase motorized patrol but rather that the force explore a number of potential strategies for heightening its presence in the community.

Small vocal interest groups have often sought out the police as a vehicle to assist them in dealing with their concerns about community issues. Such groups themselves may be a useful vehicle for police in reaching out to the larger community. If you already have co-operative relationships with such groups, then you likely have a core of committed people with the time necessary for assisting you to mobilize the larger community. The police can work with these groups to help them reach out to others and broaden both their membership and their issues of concern.

Citizens or groups who feel antagonistic toward police are those the police **must** get to know. What are the roots of the antagonism? How can their concerns be addressed? Are there other groups or organizations in the community that can help in bridging this gap? Frequently the antagonism or distrust has a long history and will not be overcome quickly. But it can be overcome, and police must demonstrate leadership in working toward resolution. The negative stereotypes these citizens

may hold of police can be most effectively broken down through positive personal interaction. Identifying common goals for a community must be done **together**. In most cases, the goals are indeed the same – a safe community where quality of life is protected.

Finding the common ground is the first step. This is not an easy task. It requires a sincere effort on both sides and significant skill. In many ways, it requires the skills and processes used by negotiators. In their book *Getting to Yes*, Roger Fisher and William Ury provide useful insights and tips for such situations. For example:

- participants should come to see themselves as working side by side, attacking the problems, not each other;
- the ability to see the situation as the other side sees it, as difficult as it may be, is one of the most important skills;
- the best way to change their perceptions is to send them a message different from what they expect;
- agreement becomes much easier if both parties feel ownership of the idea. Give them a stake in the outcome by making sure they participate in the process;
- listen actively and acknowledge what is being said. Listening enables you to understand their perceptions, feel their emotions, and hear what they are trying to say; and
- it is much easier to attribute diabolical intentions to an unknown abstraction called the “other side” than to someone you know personally. However difficult the personal relations may be between us, you and I become better able to reach an amicable reconciliation of our various interests when we accept the task as a shared problem and face it jointly.

Police officers who feel antagonistic toward segments of the community will only serve to create problems in the community. They will need help to understand the root of their antagonism and to recognize the problems it creates for effective community policing. Training and education can play a role in reversing this problem. Once again, well-managed personal interaction between the officer and individuals from the group can help bridge stereotypes.

Some officers may feel ill-equipped to work effectively with the community. Highly developed interpersonal skills and the ability to work with groups are essential in community policing. Training may be required in some cases, or at least coaching from more skilled and experienced officers. Traditionally, the community relations or crime prevention officers have demonstrated such skills. Working effectively with the community, however, requires that all officers are able to communicate effectively.

Mobilizing The Community

How do you begin to make contact with the community? If you already have effective relationships with some groups or members of the community, how do you expand this to ensure you are interacting with all components of the community?

There are a number of approaches for establishing contact with and mobilizing the community: deployment strategies, public meetings, individual meetings with leaders of community groups or organizations, attendance at meetings of community committees, etc. Despite the approaches used, a number of fundamentals should be noted:

- all levels of a police force must be actively involved in community interactions. No longer is this only the job of the Chief, crime prevention officer or public relations officer;
- both formal and informal mechanisms for police-community interaction are required. A foot-patrol program affords patrol officers informal opportunities for frequent personal contact with community members. A police-community committee provides a formal mechanism for ongoing interaction;
- responsibility for planning and implementing strategies for policing a defined community should be delegated to those officers working in the community. To be most effective, officers should be assigned to the same community for a period of time which will allow them to get to know the community and work with it.

Some approaches to working with the community include:

Officer Deployment

As indicated earlier, officers can work best with a community when they know it and are known in it. This can only happen if an officer spends sufficient time assigned to that community. Knowing the community means knowing its people, its problems, its strengths and its resources. Such knowledge is best learned through interacting with the residents, business people, community groups, schools and other service providers in the community.

Informal one-to-one contact between police officers at all levels and community members is effective. The public likes to know who the police are, and the police officers get to know the community they serve. The officers develop a sense of commitment to the community, and are better able to understand and meet its needs.

A number of internal organizational issues should be addressed by a force attempting to establish a community policing orientation:

- flexibility in deploying resources will ensure that scheduling meets the needs of the community (e.g., attendance at community meetings, timing foot patrol with tavern closing times, etc.);
- working effectively with the community requires developing strategies that meet the unique needs of that community. Front-line officers should have the autonomy and flexibility to do what needs to be done;
- all officers should have some exposure to foot patrol; this may require rotating every so often to provide that opportunity.

On the Streets

The officers on the street work with the community every day. They have opportunities to communicate not only with suspects and victims, but with residents, business owners and employees, children and visitors as they go about their business. Effectively working with the community requires that informal contacts with citizens are actively sought out as often as possible throughout the shift. Foot patrol, of course, offers the best opportunities for such encounters. But this only works successfully when the officers go beyond walking and watching. Dropping in on businesses, stopping to talk to a passerby, checking for notices of local community events or meetings should all be part of the job. The officers learn things about what is happening on the streets and have an opportunity to pass on information as well as to convey an “open” and positive image of the policing services. Not only does this promote community policing, it also serves to enhance job satisfaction for officers.

Resource constraints are often cited as a reason for not providing foot patrol. While you may be limited in your ability to provide foot patrol service, it is often possible to institute “park and walk” programs for part of a shift. If responsibility for deploying resources is delegated, the

officers responsible for a specific community will be able to best decide when and where such programs are needed. Allowed sufficient autonomy and flexibility they will be able to employ the measures needed to best serve the community.

Even if it is necessary for officers to be in their cars most of the time, opportunities should be created during every shift for every officer to have some informal community contact.

Communicating with the Community

Working with the community requires communication mechanisms that permit both informal interaction and formal educational, consultation, or problem-solving initiatives. Informal interaction can be established through a variety of mechanisms in addition to foot patrol. Examples include:

- informal but regular visits to community service agencies;
- involvement in school and community functions (e.g., dances, fairs, fund-raisers, etc.);
- citizens accompanying police on patrol/ride-along programs;
- police “open houses” in plazas or recreation centres;
- informal but regular meetings between senior officers and key community leaders;
- call-in radio talk shows;
- attendance at community meetings.

The basis of successful community policing is the establishment of mechanisms for dialogue, information exchange and consultation between the police and the public. Informal mechanisms provide the basis of a network of contacts within the community that permits ongoing communication. For that to happen, police need to seek out and connect with key people in the community and ensure that one-to-one informal contact with community members occurs frequently for all officers.

Connecting with community groups and service agencies provides the police force with a mechanism for reaching a large number of community

members. Other more formal mechanisms for connecting with the community include:

- participation in school programs;
- crime prevention sessions in libraries, seniors' residences, etc.;
- establishing mini-stations, sub-offices, a part-time office in a school, etc.;
- public forums/meetings;
- regular meetings with several community agencies;
- committees.

Police-Community Committees

Some police forces now have joint police-community committees. Such a committee can operate as a standing advisory committee to a Chief or Unit Commander, a planning and consultation committee to initiate community policing, or as a committee dealing with a specific community problem. They provide an ongoing and regular mechanism for information sharing, problem identification and problem solving.

A number of issues should be addressed initially to ensure that the expectations of committee members are clear and that the committee is structured in the most useful way.

- Joint police-community committees of this type usually operate as advisory committees to a Unit Commander, or in a small force, to a Chief. They are not mandated as either a decision-making or civilian complaints group.
- Membership should include a broad cross-section of the community and not be restricted to community "leaders". Committees should be no larger than about 15 members.
- Members should serve on the committee for no longer than one or two years so that others have opportunities to provide input and get to know their police service.

- Committee members should do more than attend meetings. All committee members should participate actively in any plans developed and in soliciting input from the broader community.
- Relevant guests from both the community and the police should be invited to attend the meetings and participate in activities initiated by the committee.
- Meetings should be held regularly - perhaps once every two weeks for a start-up period of two months and then once a month.
- Committee members should be encouraged to have informal contact with both police and community members outside of formal committee meetings.
- A Committee Chairperson should be selected by the committee.

How the committee operates and its agenda should be determined by the committee as a whole. While community members may look to the police for leadership, it is important that the police representatives not control or dominate meetings. The purpose of the meetings is problem identification and problem solving. This requires two-way open communication - the police and the community sharing information and ideas.

The committee faces three tasks:

- problem identification
- problem solving
- maintenance and monitoring

Problem identification:

The police force or the community has already done, or is in the process of doing, a community profile. The various components of the community, the nature of its people and its problems are identified. The committee's task is then to identify two or three specific priorities which it will address over a six-month to one-year period. The committee should see itself as a forum for identifying problems and initiating problem resolution strategies. This would involve identifying and mobilizing resources (i.e. people, organizations and funds) to develop

and maintain projects or programs. This would result in mobilizing a larger segment of both the community and the police force.

The priorities identified will vary depending on the needs of the community. These might include: drug abuse, break and enter, bicycle theft, chronic parking problems in an area, disorderly activities after tavern closings, the need for more funds for crime prevention programs, the need to combat community apathy, race relations problems, etc. Any problem which is identified by the community or the police and can be addressed co-operatively can be relevant to the committee.

The committee can also inform the community about police work and the problems police face in fulfilling their mandate. Setting up "ride-along" programs for committee members (as well as for members of police governing bodies) provides an opportunity for community members to gain a better understanding of police work and of the problems police see in the community. As well, it is an opportunity for officers on patrol to hear about the concerns of community members other than the offenders or victims he/she most frequently encounters.

Be realistic in establishing priorities. You cannot take on every problem and expect to solve them all completely. Take on one or two problems, identify them clearly, have a clear understanding of what "success" in addressing the problem will mean, and plan a realistic strategy for tackling the problem. In this way you will have a better chance of achieving success.

Problem solving:

Once you have clearly defined the problem to be addressed, your next step is to engage in creative, co-operative problem solving. The first step in such an exercise is to avoid certain situations.

- Do not come with a solution in hand - be prepared to have an open mind.
- Do not get bogged down in perceived obstacles to dealing with the problem.
- Do not get sidetracked.

A problem must be clearly understood before it can be solved. In a problem-solving process used by the Newport News Police Department,

this step is known as Analysis¹. While this was used as an internal process for police only, it is quite applicable to a joint police-community committee:

“Because a great deal of the information that can lead to a thorough understanding of the problem exists outside the department, emphasis is placed on tapping information sources within the community: talking to residents and business leaders, discussing problems with members of other public agencies, and collecting facts and figures from national research.” (pg.47)

The Newport News Task Force developed a checklist (see Appendix 1 for a modified version of this) for use as a guide in gathering and organizing information. While it may not be necessary to collect all the information in the guide, it does provide a structure for reviewing major topics related to the problem. Discussions around the nature of the problem frequently result in ideas about problem resolution or response.

It is important to clearly specify all the situations that need to be changed if the problem is to be overcome, establish realistic goals for the situation, identify obstacles that need to be overcome to achieve each goal and recommend the best course of action to achieve the goal.

You may wish to review the information contained in a report in this series entitled “*Problem Oriented Policing*.”

Maintaining and monitoring:

Often committees are formed because of a pressing issue which has sparked community concern. There is nothing wrong with such problem-initiated groups which have a specific issue to deal with. They must be recognized, however, as a short-term, single focus body. Worked with as such, they provide an opportunity for input from the community and a resource for joint police-community initiatives. Once the issue of concern is dealt with to the satisfaction of the group, informal ties can be maintained, but formal structures are no longer necessary.

A citizen advisory committee or joint police-community consultation committee may, however, be established as an ongoing forum. In order to ensure that it remains vital and useful, a number of steps should be taken.

- Both police and community representation on the committee should be rotated. People often “burn out” on committees. Fresh ideas and the opportunity for broadened participation and contact are essential.
- Meetings should be regular, limited in time, managed effectively and kept on topic (see Appendix 2).
- Invite appropriate guests to the meetings - very busy community leaders may be happy to attend a two-hour meeting, even though they cannot sit on the committee.
- Ensure community committee members have access to police members between meetings. Seek out this contact yourself with community members.
- Ensure task and time commitments are realistic for all the people involved.

Monitoring the effectiveness of the committee involves reviewing what has been accomplished in terms of dealing with community problems, as well as reviewing the satisfaction of committee members with the process.

Examples Of Community Initiatives

How you work with your community and the problems you work on together will depend on the characteristics of both your community and your police force. Some examples are provided below of initiatives undertaken by police forces in Ontario.

- One community had a significant bicycle theft problem because youth were not properly securing their bicycles. The police force got together with a local service club which donated four hundred dollars. Every month for four or five months the police identified a few bicycles secured properly and awarded the youth twenty dollars. The police connected with the local press, and they publicized this activity and significantly reduced bicycle theft.
- A number of forces have set up a Community Citizens Committee on Policing, including representatives from various segments of the community. These committees have undertaken a range of activities including the initiation and support of new initiatives designed to prevent crime and identify offenders. In some instances, these committees have been a significant resource for the police force in its efforts to obtain support from local town councils and police commissions.
- There are numerous examples of police forces which have effectively lobbied business owners and local companies to provide financial help for special projects or to provide supplies, awards, facilities, etc. in the support of crime prevention programs.
- A number of forces have successfully mobilized local service clubs to establish facilities for youth recreation such as drop-in centres, dances, etc.
- One force routinely assigns officers to do “follow-up” calls, one month after an occurrence. The officer has no direct investigative responsibility but undertakes the follow-up for both crime prevention and community liaison purposes. The “follow-up” call is given legitimacy by being “counted” in the statistics for the officer. This activity is seen as developing a very positive image of the force within

the community and enhancing opportunities for communication between the police and the community.

- Many forces develop deployment patterns to address specific crime or public order problems (e.g., having officers doing foot patrol at or near “problem” taverns at closing times).
- Some forces have initiated community surveys in which community residents and business owners are given an opportunity to report on their perceptions of the problems in the community and policing service being provided. A number of the forces in which this was done reported that surveys helped them to identify and understand local concerns.
- At least one force had an office in a local high school, with the same officer present on a regular basis. This permitted the development of excellent rapport with the students.
- Some forces report having informal meetings between the police and council members to get direct feedback about the councillors’ concerns and issues they have heard from the public;
- Neighbourhood Watch captains are seen as important contacts to the community because they communicate with a broad range of residents and learn about their concerns and complaints.
- Some forces have problems maintaining interest in programs such as Neighbourhood Watch. To enhance community involvement and maintain interest in Neighbourhood Watch, they sometimes use the residents involved in the program for other activities, such as assisting with searches for lost children, etc.
- A number of forces have developed particularly productive relations with their local business associations. In some cases, systems have been established where merchants can be informed quickly when there are significant shoplifting or fraud problems facing business owners.

Other approaches to working with the community and developing joint police-community initiatives are detailed in studies undertaken by individual police forces and by the federal and provincial Ministries of the Solicitor General. Two such examples are outlined briefly below.

- The Metropolitan Toronto Police Force identified two communities in which to pilot a police - community planning and consultation process designed to enhance community policing and establish effective community policing strategies. Formal and informal strategies for enhancing police-community communication and consultation included: police-community liaison committees with representation from the major interest groups, organizations and agencies in the community; regular informal contact between the unit commander (and other senior officers) and key representatives or organizations in the community; opportunities for officers to have informal contact with grass-roots members of the community, through foot patrol programs, attendance at community meetings, establishing sub-offices involvement with agencies and schools.

An evaluation of this pilot program noted that it was “. . . successful in generating positive and useful consultation with the community that led to policing strategies for dealing with priority crime and safety issues in the two communities. Other benefits included:

- perceptions of improved quality of life in the communities;
- enhanced mutual respect and effective dialogue between the police and various community representatives, organizations and agencies;
- increased job satisfaction and a sense of accomplishment for those officers involved in community-based policing activities; and
- enhanced co-operation from the community when dealing with “hard to police” situations.²

The Ontario Provincial Police undertook a pilot project to test a community policing strategy in which one officer in each of five communities assumed the role of “community catalyst.” The officers were given “responsibility for establishing an office in the community, performing standard law enforcement duties, organizing a Community Policing Committee, and undertaking a range of community-based activities to ensure the preservation of peace, prevention of crime and protection of life and property within the assigned community.”³

The officers undertook a wide range of activities and successfully mobilized community support for and involvement in crime prevention. In some cases, there were significant reductions in targeted crime and order problems, as well as resolution of “core” problems that had required

continued police attention. An important component of this program was that the designated officer engaged in a full range of enforcement duties within the designated community. The strategy proved most effective in sites where the officer engaged in a reasonable balance of law enforcement and community-oriented activities. The primary role of the officer was seen as law enforcement and maintenance of order.

Shared Responsibility

The police on their own cannot solve a community's problems. Traditionally, the police hear about the symptoms (crimes) and try to do something about incidents that come to their attention. Police forces do not have the resources or the mandate to work on their own to deal with the underlying problems. Until these problems are tackled, crimes will continue to occur and police will continue to investigate and to arrest when they can. But they will not win the fight against crime alone.

The maintenance of law and order is the responsibility of all citizens.

All members of the community must make a commitment to actively enhance its own safety and the maintenance of order. Police forces can play an important role in helping to motivate and guide communities in this process.

Endnotes

1Problem solving: Problem Oriented Policing in Newport News; National Institute of Justice; Police Executive Research Forum, 1987.

2An Assessment of the Metropolitan Toronto Community-Police Planning Project, January 1988. M.T.P.F., pgs 1 & 2.

3An Evaluation of the O.P.P. "Community Catalyst" Strategy Field Test, 1989, Ministry of the Solicitor General, Ontario.

Appendix 1

Problem Analysis

Examples of information which may be helpful. (Note: some will obviously not be applicable to certain problems.)

A) Actors

- Who are the offenders (age, life-style, education/employment, criminal history, etc.)?

B) Victims

- Who?
- Routine Activities?
- Security measures used/precautions taken?
- Relationship to offender?
- Response to victimization?
- Willingness to co-operate with police?

C) Third Parties

- Who?
- How involved?
- Willingness to co-operate with police?

D) Incidents

- Sequence of events:
- Events preceding
- Event itself (intent of offender and actions by victim)
- Events following incident

Physical context:

- When (time of day, week, month, season and cycle)
- Location
- Access control (target hardening)
- Surveillance

Social context:

- Likelihood of witnesses
- Probable actions of witnesses
- Neighbourhood Watch in area
- Attitude of residents/community members

Harm done to victim:

- Nature

Legal issues:

- Statutory category
- Elements of proof required
- Potential penalties

Gain to offender:

- Property, revenge, gratification, status/recognition, etc.

E) Responses**Community response:**

- Neighbourhood affected - perceptions of problem, amount of crime, handling of problem by police, courts and other social service agencies
- Attitudes about problem - perceived seriousness, level of fear, exceptions of action by police, courts, etc.

- Actions - willingness to prevent further incidents, self-protection/avoidance and participation in neighbourhood watch/crime prevention programs
- Community groups - involvement, perceptions

Institutional response:

- Police - attitudes, workload, approach to problem, resources
- Courts - how handled
- Legislature - knowledge of problem and willingness to deal with it
- Prevention programs
- Mass media
- Business sector
- Schools
- Medical
- Other social services

Appendix 2

How To Run A Successful Meeting*

Questions you must answer before you begin.

- What are your objectives and expectations?
- Whom do you want to attend? What should be the composition of the group?
- How many people do you want? What size of meeting?
- Where are you going to meet? What should be the room arrangement?
- What roles and responsibilities should individuals have during the meeting?
- Will decisions be made? What kind? How and by whom?
- How much time are you going to allow?
- What is the agenda?
- Will there be presentations?
- Will there be some kind of record of the meeting?
- What are the desired outcomes of the meetings?
- How will tasks, deadlines and responsibilities be determined?

*See: *How to Make Meetings Work*. Michael Doyle and David Straw, Berkley Publishing Group, 1986.

Shaping the Future

**DIFFERENTIAL
POLICE
RESPONSE**



Ministry of the
Solicitor General and
Correctional Services

Ontario

Differential Police Response

A manual for the development and implementation of an
alternative response system for calls for police service

Ministry of the Solicitor General
and Correctional Services of Ontario
and
Ministry of the Solicitor General
of Canada

City of Windsor Police Service

January 1990
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Preface

Differential Police Response was prepared for the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario by the City of Windsor Police Service.

This report is part of a series of manuals on community policing produced jointly by the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario and the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada. The objective of the series is to provide information on the implementation of community policing, focusing on planning, management process, training and operational strategies. These reports are designed for use by all members of the police services, police services boards, community groups, students of policing/criminology, educational facilities, police college instructors, and government officials.

The ministries wish to express their appreciation to the police managers and officers of the Peel Regional Police Service and the Metropolitan Toronto Police for their contribution to the report.

*Barry Leighton & Marsha Mitzak
Series Editors*

NOTE: *The views expressed in this report are those of the author and not necessarily those of the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario or the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada.*

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Table Of Contents

Introduction	1
Developing A Differential Police Response Program	3
Goals and Objectives	3
Handling Calls for Service in a Contemporary Police Organization	4
Major Results	6
Planning And Implementation	9
Getting Started	9
Establishing a Planning and Implementation Committee	9
Gathering Data	9
Implementation Plan	10
Developing New Call Classification Codes	10
Revising Call Intake Procedures	11
Determining the Appropriate Response	14
Preparation of the Preliminary Plan	16
Training Personnel	16
Pre-testing New Call Classification Codes	18
Contacting Outside Agencies	18
Telephone Reporting Unit	19
Building Support for the Program	21
Coordination of Data Needs	21
Establishing Evaluation Procedures	22
Conclusion	23
Appendix A Windsor Police Force	25
Appendix B Peel Regional Police Force	31

Introduction

Designing a community-based policing strategy for any force requires that police managers carefully review and assess every aspect of their force's operating procedures. One of the first steps is to determine whether there is a need for Differential Response to calls for service.

Managers of forces which experience consistently high volume of calls know all too well that dispatching a unit to respond to every call leaves little time or manpower to pursue community policing objectives. "How can my force do proactive policing? It's all we can do to keep up with the calls for service."

This is true, as far as it goes. Trying to respond to every call by dispatching a patrol car, particularly in busy urban centres, must be recognized as a "no win" situation. As times change and the volume of calls increase every year, the only way to keep up seems to be to recruit more manpower and purchase more vehicles. At the same time however, we face fiscal restraint and are constantly under pressure to do more with less. We seem to be caught in a circular problem to which there is no answer.

For several Ontario police forces, Differential Police Response provides the answer, while still maintaining community satisfaction with police services.

Simply stated, the DPR system analyses a force's workload and classifies incoming calls into distinct categories according to their urgency, some requiring immediate response and others which can be handled just as effectively by other means.

Call analysis will show, for example, that many calls for service are in fact reporting incidents which took place some time before, such as break-ins. Clearly, a rapid mobile response to such calls would not serve the community any better than by having an officer arrive within perhaps an hour of the call. The need to use Differential Police Response, however, must always be balanced with the necessity to meet public needs. DPR would seem to provide a solution to this particular dilemma.

Improving the management of calls for service is not only necessary to provide forces with sufficient uncommitted time to perform other ac-

tivities, (e.g. directed patrol or investigation), but is essential to ensuring that forces can respond to critical or emergency calls for service.

Given the rising level of calls for service, many forces have no choice but to stack calls during peak periods. This results in response delays and ultimately a loss of citizen satisfaction, since often citizens are told that a unit will be sent out immediately.

Equally important, where the calls for service function places constant demands on mobile units, police forces are unable to assign patrol officers to generalist duties such as investigation and prevention.

Recent studies have shown that approximately *15 percent* of calls received by the police are crimes in progress or medical emergencies where a rapid mobile response is thought to be necessary to prevent or treat injuries, or to apprehend suspects. The remaining *85 percent* of calls are either crime incidents that are no longer in progress, or where suspects or evidence are unavailable.

Research has also shown that citizen satisfaction is *not* diminished by a delayed response, provided that the complainant is given an approximate time in which a police officer may arrive. Surveys of citizen attitudes indicate that for certain calls for service, citizens are also willing to accept various non-mobile responses such as telephone reporting, walk-in reporting and referrals to other more appropriate agencies.

Such findings would clearly suggest that *there is* a solution to the dilemma of keeping up with calls for service while still maintaining the quality and effectiveness of other police functions. Police experts estimate that *30 percent* of all calls for service can be handled by non-mobile alternatives, and *55 percent* by delayed mobile response. By handling calls **differentially**, a force can make the best use of its resources and open the door to exploring a variety of creative and effective community-based policing strategies.

The purpose of this report is to provide not only an overview of this issue but also suggestions on planning, implementing and evaluating differential response for those forces interested in looking at the calls for service problem.

Developing A Differential Police Response Program

A Differential Police Response Program is based in the communications centre of the force. Communications centre personnel classify incoming calls for service based on the nature of the incident or request and time of occurrence. Relevant information is gathered by the operator and the appropriate police response is determined.

Goals and Objectives

The two overall goals of Differential Police Response are to increase the efficiency of the management of calls for service and maintain or improve citizen satisfaction with police service.

Achieving this first goal will result in the following:

- A reduction in the number of non-emergency calls for service handled by immediate mobile response;
- An increase in the number of non-emergency calls for service handled by a telephone reporting unit, by delayed mobile response, or by other alternative responses;
- A decrease in the amount of time patrol units spend answering calls for service, and an increase in the amount of time available for proactive policing or other activities; and
- An increase in the availability of patrol units to respond rapidly to emergency calls.

The second goal addresses the need to determine what types of calls can and should be handled by alternate responses without adversely affecting citizen satisfaction with police service. This can be achieved by:

- explaining to the public at call intake how their call will be handled; and
- servicing the call in the most effective way.

The following is an outline of the common objectives of a Differential Police Response program:

- increase the amount of uncommitted time of call-for-service units by diverting calls through differential responses
- maintain or increase citizen satisfaction with response to calls for service
- maintain or decrease average cost for handling calls for service
- of the calls which would previously have received an immediate mobile response:
 - divert X percent to the Telephone Report Unit;
 - divert X percent to another city agency; and
 - divert X percent to other differential response (actual percentages to be determined by individual force).
- decrease the amount of time spent by a patrol unit in responding to calls for service during its tour
- increase the frequency of long periods of uncommitted time during a unit's tour of duty, through the use of one of the following responses:
 - Delayed Mobile Response - Priority 2
 - Telephone Reporting Unit/Call Back Mode
Priority 3

Handling Calls for Service in a Contemporary Police Organization

Calls for service vary so greatly that in many cases common sense and good judgment must prevail in determining the appropriate response. The majority of calls currently being received by police forces, however, will fall into one of three categories. Under a DPR model call categories are identified according to these priorities:

Immediate Mobile Response - Priority 1

Due to the seriousness of the event, police are required to attend the scene of the occurrence as quickly as possible. Under these conditions, the unit assigned to the patrol area, if in service, should be sent on the call. It may be, however, that a neighbouring district unit or other patrol

unit may be close to the call site, in which case the closest unit should respond. It is the responsibility of the communicator to send only the units required to handle the call and not to extend an open invitation to any unit wishing to attend the call. This will be particularly important when a force is operating under a zone policing model.

Delayed Mobile Response - Priority 2

This classification will include many calls for service. The nature of the call will dictate that police personnel attend the scene to investigate, collect evidence or for many other reasons. Although police presence is required, there is no *urgent* need. In dealing with this type of call, every effort is to be made by the communicator to send the patrol unit responsible for that zone. This may mean holding the call for a period of time. Also where one officer units are available and the call is such that the presence of two officers is not required, the one person unit should always be sent.

Upon receipt of a Priority 2 call, the communicator informs the caller of the approximate time of police arrival. This is an important procedure that must be followed.

Telephone Reporting Unit/Call Back Mode - Priority 3

Many calls for service received in the communications centre can be handled by a means other than mobile response. Reports can be taken over the telephone, e.g. theft and property damage reports, where there are no suspects, and when no on-scene investigating will be carried out. In these cases, the presence of a police officer at the scene would not vary the final results of the investigation. Careful consideration is given to whether or not the police should be sent, and where doubt exists, the communications centre supervisor decides. Calls for service dealt with over the telephone can be handled in one of three ways:

A. Reports by Phone

Where time permits or where citizen convenience is a factor, reports may be taken

- by the call taker at the time of the call, or
- taken later by telephone reporting unit personnel.

B. Telephone Reporting Unit (T.R.U.)

This unit is staffed by police officers. Some forces have chosen to assign officers working light duties to these units. Others rotate officers from each platoon into the T.R.U. on a shift basis (e.g. Windsor or London). The T.R.U. should be separate from the communications centre and should be operational for at least twelve hours daily, seven days a week. The primary functions of the unit are:

- to return calls to citizens reporting Priority 3 matters
- to take reports by phone
- to follow-up complaints and investigate matters in cases which can be handled by telephone

C. Call Back Mode

Some calls may be handled by contacting the complainant or the offender by telephone. An example of this may be a loud stereo complaint: (the complainant knows the offender, is not interested in seeing charges laid, but wants only to have the noise discontinued). In such an event the situation may be satisfied by telephoning the offender and requesting compliance with the local by-law. The officer should explain that if any further complaints are received, a mobile response will be made and appropriate action taken. This mode of response should be conducted by the communication centre supervisor.

Major Results

The Differential Police Response Program developed, tested and evaluated by the National Institute of Justice in the United States in the mid 1980's, yielded the following conclusions from three test sites:

- the D.P.R. program increased the amount of information received from callers
- D.P.R. provided callers with more accurate information on what police service they would receive, thereby leaving no false expectations with the public
- there was a sizeable reduction in the number of calls handled by immediate mobile response
- more time for directed or specialized patrol activities was identified
- call screening ensured that units would be available for emergency situations

- patrol officers' satisfaction with the information received from the operator/call-taker increased
- the alternatives for response were found to be less costly than sending a mobile unit
- public satisfaction with alternate responses was high (owing to the accuracy of information regarding a delay in response or response alternatives given by the call takers).

Similar results have been achieved by those Canadian forces operating a DPR system. (See Appendices A and B).

Planning And Implementation

Getting Started

When considering DPR for a force, the following steps should be taken at the outset:

1. Establish a planning and implementation committee
2. Gather data and analyse current calls for service
3. Develop an implementation plan.

Establishing a Planning and Implementation Committee

This committee will guide the development of DPR in the force and should be viewed as a sub-committee of the force's community-based policing implementation committee.

Include telecommunicators on the internal planning committee, as well as civilians and officers from all key divisions, especially patrol and communications and involve project evaluators in the planning phase. This will ensure that the viewpoints and concerns of the entire force are taken into consideration.

This committee will play an important role during the evaluation phase of implementation.

Gathering Data

The analysis of calls for service data will serve at least two purposes. First, forces can accurately determine the time, volume and nature of calls received and the percentage of calls which are to be handled by immediate mobile response, delayed mobile response, and non-mobile response. Second, forces will be able to determine the organizational changes needed to respond to calls using the new procedures including:

- whether adjustments in the staffing levels for call takers and dispatchers are necessary;
- the number of staff in the Telephone Reporting Unit to handle the bulk of the non-mobile calls for service;
- the volume of calls which can be referred to outside agencies.

Implementation Plan

At this stage, the development of a comprehensive implementation plan is essential to ensure a smooth transition to the DPR model. The implementation plan would include the following steps:

- analyse data and develop a model for classifying calls for service
- determine various response alternatives for calls for service
- establish a time frame for implementation
- establish operating procedures (e.g. development of a procedures manual for staff)
- inform personnel about the system and operating procedures, and the training/information plan
- determine methods for evaluation of the overall strategy and new procedures.

1) Developing New Call Classification Codes

To determine the appropriate response to the full range of calls for service, the classification model must be precise enough to make fine distinctions among the calls. Communications personnel must be able to determine the dynamics of an incident (current classification schemes based on signal codes do not provide this level of information). The model developed should include two types of information: the *nature* of the incident and the *time* of occurrence.

Nature

In determining the nature of the incident three factors will be considered initially:

- A. Whether an incident has already happened or could happen.** (For example: a call reporting a prowler who could be a robber requires a more rapid response than does a burglary that has already been committed).
- B. Whether the incident involves property or persons.** This category reflects the two basic distinctions made by criminal law and

provides the police with some idea of the type of event they will be handling.

- C. Whether the call is of a service nature.** These calls could involve minor crimes or simply the provision of some form of assistance.

One police force has identified a classification scheme consisting of six incident categories: person crimes and conflicts; medical problems and dependent persons; property crimes; traffic problems; assistance and service type calls; suspicious circumstances.

Each force will determine the number and type of call classifications according to its own need, and in order to accurately identify the appropriate response. As previously mentioned, the purpose of the classification scheme is to determine the dynamics of the incidents, so that call takers and patrol units can service the call in the most efficient and effective manner.

Time

The time interval between the occurrence and the actual report to the police is also an important element in determining the appropriate police response. Many incidents are reported hours or days after they occurred. In many of these cases, the delay in citizen reporting of the incident negates the value of immediate mobile response. Even for certain calls which are in progress, immediate mobile response may not be required. Incident types are divided as, *in-progress*, *proximate*, (occurring less than 30 minutes before the citizen contacted the department), and cold (received more than one hour after their occurrence).

2) Revising Call Intake Procedures

A more complicated process than the traditional practice of immediate mobile response to all calls for service, the DPR system requires significant changes in the call intake procedures.

The use of a differential response model places increased responsibility on call takers/operators and dispatchers. Under DPR, operators are required to collect more information in order to evaluate and classify each incoming call according to the classification model (nature and time of occurrence of the incident and other appropriate criteria), and assign each call to the appropriate classification category. Based on the

response strategies for given categories of calls, the operator must also inform the citizen how the call will be handled.

Dispatchers must also manage calls to ensure that *citizen expectations* are met regarding response time, in the case of a delayed response and that other force policies such as zone policing are adhered to. Because of this increased responsibility, management should closely monitor dispatchers' adherence to force policy by means of random audit of calls.

The following are suggestions for review of call intake procedures:

- Management should establish any operational procedures necessary to ensure that call takers are well able to implement the DPR model.
- Management should *review the type of information* currently collected by call takers.
- Determine how much additional information is required to classify calls under a DPR system.
- A *set of standardized questions* should be developed to assist call takers in quickly classifying calls to determine which calls require an immediate mobile response.
- Forces should develop *standardized explanations* for informing citizens of the appropriate response.
- *New call intake forms* should be designed to address the elements of the call classification scheme and to facilitate the evaluation of the program.
- Written guidelines should be developed on the new call classification procedures.

One force has developed standardized questions to enable communication centre personnel to determine the most appropriate response.

Priority One - Immediate Mobile Response

Is there physical harm requiring medical response to the scene?

Is there potential for physical harm?

Is the crime still in progress?

Is there a weapon involved?

Is the person with the weapon still there?

Are there weapons available to a person involved at the scene?

Is the suspect still there?

Is there a violent person at the scene?

Is it a crime against a person which occurred within the past minutes?

Is it a crime against property which occurred within the last 5 minutes?

Are there person(s) trapped in an auto (accident scene)?

Is there an agent which could explode?

Are harmful chemicals involved?

Is there a chance for an explosion?

Have gas tanks ruptured?

Are high voltage wires involved?

Priority Two - Delayed Mobile Response

Any type of complaint where a reasonable wait for a policeman will not compound the complaint or the investigative procedures will not be hampered.

Is it a crime against a person which occurred more than 15 minutes ago?

Is it a crime against property which occurred more than 5 minutes ago?

Is the suspect known to have left the area?

Is there physical evidence at the scene?

Is there additional evidence for a previously report of filed?

Any call for which a report could be done on the phone but the caller insists on police mobile response.

Assisting elderly person(s) back into bed after a fall.

Disorderly person, dog bite reports, and abandoned autos (when 10-18 is not available or owner cannot be contacted)

Service calls (compassionate messages, checking on welfare of persons, picking up found property, etc.)

If a missing child, and between the hours of 0700 and 2000.

Subject is in custody and posing no immediate problem (shoplifters, weapons, seizures).

Priority Three - Telephone Reporting Unit Call Back

Any type of cold call for which a telephone report could be done at the time of complaint; if the suspect is not at the scene or in the area and there is no information to identify the suspect.

Theft and property damage reports with no suspect

Lost articles, missing person(s) (unless a child)

Additional information for a previously filed report

Attempt B&Es; B&Es to garages, sheds or commercial premises where nothing taken and/or no physical evidence at the scene

Telephone harassment and obscene phone calls if there is no information to identify the suspect

Theft of gasoline when no licence number or description of vehicle is available

Noisy parties, barking dogs, and abandoned autos when owners cannot be contacted.

3) Determining The Appropriate Response

As previously discussed, when designing a new call classification code, two types of information must be included: the **nature** and **time** of the occurrence.

In order to determine the appropriate response to a call for service, the same two criteria should be applied: what was the time interval between the occurrence and the call, and what is the nature of the incident.

Types of Responses

Three basic types of responses and additional options for each type are found in the differential response model.

Immediate Mobile Response

- One or two officer units
- One or more units

Delayed Mobile Responses

In addition to the options specified for immediate mobile responses:

- calls would be delayed for a set period of time
- calls would be responded to by scheduling an appointment with the citizen.

Non-mobile Responses

- telephone reports
- referrals to other agencies
- mail-in reports
- walk-in reports in response to police direction
- no response

The following chart showing response alternatives was taken from Windsor Police Force's DPR policy and procedures manual (January 1985). The classifications 1, 2 and 3 refer to Immediate Mobile Response (1), Delayed Mobile Response (2) and non-mobile response (3). Windsor call takers/operators take sufficient information from the caller in order to determine the general classification of the call (e.g. Person Crimes and Conflicts, or Traffic Problems, etc.). The call taker then determines the specific time and nature of occurrence. This information allows them to pinpoint the appropriate response. For example, Table 2 indicates that an assault in progress would be assigned a Priority One status (immediate mobile response). If, however, that same assault had occurred in the last 15 minutes, it would be assigned a Priority Two (delayed mobile response). If the call was to report an assault which occurred over one hour ago, it would be assigned a Priority Three status, and would receive a non-mobile response. For example, the T.R.U. would take the report and if appropriate, the caller may be referred to a community service agency for assistance (e.g. youth counselling).

Windsor has developed similar charts for each of their six call classifications. (See Appendix A).

Matching with Community Needs

The intention of this paper is to provide an overview of DPR and to give suggestions on designing a differential response model. Since every community is different, each having its own capabilities and needs, it is anticipated that police managers will select those alternatives which best fit their own community. For example: a call categorized as proximate, crime against property, might be handled by police in one community by taking a telephone report, while another force might ask the citizen to come in to the station to file a report. Also, the program can have an "override" function whereby a citizen demand for a particular response is allowed to take precedence over the prescribed response according to the classification scheme. It is important to keep in mind that the DPR system you choose must meet the needs of your particular community.

4) Preparation of Preliminary Plan

The force should then prepare a preliminary plan describing progress in undertaking the above-mentioned activities, and the expected organizational changes needed to respond to calls using the new procedures. This information would be based on a preliminary analysis of calls for service workload.

While this plan is under review, the force can undertake other tasks to prepare for the implementation of the DPR system.

5) Training of Personnel

Comprehensive training plans should be developed prior to implementation. These plans will include training for call takers/operators, dispatchers, telephone reporting staff, first-line supervisors and patrol officers. Call takers/operators should be trained to assign the appropriate response to calls, and in communication skills, to ensure that citizens are given adequate explanations of the designated response. Training of dispatchers will focus on force department policy regarding ensuring that they understand time frame and procedures for dispatching calls. The training of Telephone Reporting Unit staff will focus on report writing and communication skills.

Training is one of **most important** elements in the implementation of the Differential Police Response System, since personnel involved must have a full understanding and working knowledge of the project prior to implementation of any type of change.

An orientation and familiarization plan should be designed for field personnel and other police staff, instructing these individuals about the program and its goals. Personnel in the communications centre operating as the Telephone Reporting Unit should receive intensive skills training as they are most directly involved in the new program and its processes and procedures. A series of training aids and reference materials can be developed to assist personnel in making the transition to DPR procedures. Training and reference material can include a DPR training guide, DPR policy manual, handout material, overhead slides, charts, etc.

The next group scheduled for training should be the **uniformed patrol officers**. The training of officers can be accomplished during their scheduled briefing times a few times a week. The officers are given a brief history of the DPR process and what DPR will mean for them regarding a more productive use of their time. This group can receive handout material and be given an explanation of the expeditor function, including planned changes in the dispatching of calls. Uniformed patrol officers are encouraged to ask questions and add suggestions during the pre-implementation and implementation of the program. Training for this latter group should focus on the goals of DPR and the recognized positive effect of freeing up more officer time for directed patrol and related prevention and apprehension programs.

Prior to DPR implementation effort, it is recommended that:

- all training needs be reviewed and sufficient training and reference materials be developed
- instructors be selected from the group to be trained
- input for change and continuing development be solicited from personnel directly involved in current procedures

The value of planning for a DPR model, the development of new call classifications and call intake procedures, and intensive training (which is often overlooked by forces) will place the force in a better position to make the transition.

6) Pre-Testing New Call Classification Codes

Following the training sessions, call takers can pre-test the new call classification techniques for a short time period, while still responding to calls for service in the accustomed manner. Operators can:

- use the standardized questions in their conversations with citizens
- classify each call in terms of the dimensions of the uniform call classification scheme
- record the appropriate information on each call using the new call intake forms.

The pre-test period will allow operators problems so that modifications can be made. In addition, observation of conversations between complaint operators and citizens can be monitored at this time to ensure that new procedures are being followed.

7) Contacting Outside Agencies

Since forces are required to use outside agencies for some calls for service, certain steps must be taken to establish good working relationships with these agencies. These include:

- identifying the available non-police public and private agencies (e.g. animal control, crisis intervention units, detoxification centres, and utility companies)
- establish communications with the managers of these agencies
- determine the range of services they currently offer, their hours of availability and their capacity for handling referred calls
- establish agreements with agency managers on the procedures for diverting calls to these agencies.

The baseline data collected during this phase should permit forces to estimate the percentage and types of calls which agencies could anticipate receiving once DPR is implemented. Once agreement is reached with these agencies, each force can develop a directory of referral agencies to be used by complaint operators and staff of the expeditor unit in referring calls. The Directory should specify operating procedures, eligibility criteria, and hours of availability of the outside

agencies. Forces should also develop procedures for updating the directory in the event changes in agency services.

8) Telephone Reporting Unit/Resource Centre

Each force should develop procedures for the operation of a Telephone Reporting Unit. Officers of this unit will be responsible for handling calls screened by the call takers/operators as appropriate for non-mobile responses. Staffing options and the location of the unit is left to the discretion of each force and convenience. Peel Regional Police Force have their unit located adjacent to the communications centre. (See appendix B).

The unit can also handle calls suitable for referral to outside agencies which cannot be completed by the call taker/operators at call intake (due to lengthy information requirements). In addition, the unit may be responsible for taking walk-in reports (where a force does not have neighbourhood offices), scheduling appointments with callers and then referring this information to the appropriate dispatcher, for relay to patrol units or through appropriate force channels to other officers or sections.

Telephone reports can be handled as follows:

- The citizen can be asked to call the unit directly after the call taker/operator has taken the details.
- Calls can be referred directly by the operator to the unit at the initial contact with the citizen. This mechanism assures that contact with the citizen is maintained.
- A call back system can be used whereby the operator obtains the phone number of the citizen and advises him that the unit will call him back.

These mechanisms avoid the problem of having too many telephone reports at one time and too few at others, enabling the unit to better manage the workload. (Because citizen convenience and satisfaction are important elements of alternative response techniques, asking the citizen to call the police twice is considered the less preferable option for telephone reporting).

The Telephone Reporting Unit is highly visible and involves extensive contact with the public. Operators, therefore, have an important public relations role, since each contact either builds or weakens the force's relationship with community. Communication skills, public relations ability, courtesy, and patience are essential qualifications for unit personnel. Supervisory personnel must constantly ensure that officers assigned to this Unit perform to the high standards expected.

The primary purpose of the Unit is to handle those calls which do not require the dispatch of a field officer. By taking reports over the telephone and from citizens who walk into the police station, a portion of calls from the field can be diverted. It is estimated that Telephone Reporting Units handle 30-40% of the call volume of a force. The Telephone Reporting Unit's workload will come from three major sources:

- Telephone complaints and inquiries
- Walk-in traffic, and
- Supplemental Reports to original Occurrence Reports.

Incidents which might be classified as Telephone Reporting Unit calls are: missing persons, runaways (over the age of 14), theft under, theft from vehicles, thefts, simple assaults (suspect not at scene), indecent exposures, traffic accidents where the victim came to the force, vandalism reports, and incident/information reports.

Communications personnel play an integral role in the diverting of calls to the Unit as they are the initial contact with the citizen. Based on their experience, guidelines of the DPR project, and common sense, they will make the decision as to the type of response needed. Call takers/operators are instructed to carefully evaluate calls and determine which calls can be diverted from the field units by:

- 1) Providing information directly over the phone;
- 2) Transferring the caller to the T.R.U./Resource Centre or another unit within the department, or
- 3) Referring the caller to another agency.

9) Building Support for the Program

Management should make an effort to gain acceptance of the program by personnel and staff. This should include briefing of the command personnel and units within the force on the scope of the program and the resultant changes in operating procedures.

The following are suggestions for a communications strategy to develop support for the new procedure:

- Meetings with selected attendance on an informal basis
- Meetings with selected attendance on a formal basis
- Press conferences
- Developing a video tape
- Appointing liaison officers
- Producing an internal information bulletin
- Developing a special DPR newsletter for internal distribution
- Writing an article for the force's regular newsletter
- Attending District Division community meetings
- Speaking to citizen or community associations
- Using public service television spots
- Private meetings, lunches or breakfasts with community and political leadership
- Writing letters outlining program goals to community leadership
- Developing a program briefing paper for the media
- Holding a media background briefing session

10) Coordination of Data Needs

It will be necessary to revise the call intake forms to reflect the new call classification scheme and the new response alternatives. Forces also need to develop forms for the appropriate Telephone Reporting. Consultation among various departments within the force is important in

preventing duplication of data collection efforts. Such cooperation can also ensure that special data needs for evaluation of the effort can become part of the force's regular data collection process. For example, to develop a data base useful for interpreting the results of DPR as well as to ensure conformance with the new procedures, each operator is required to record on the call intake form whether the citizen was informed of the designated response.

11) Establish Evaluation Procedures

An evaluation of the force's overall progress in undertaking the tasks called for in administering DPR should include an **assessment**. It would include, for example:

- any suggested modifications to program procedures based on a review of the preliminary program plan
- the final analysis of baseline data
- a description of the structure, functions, and success of the Telephone Reporting Unit
- information on the force's efforts to establish agreements with outside referral agencies
- the new forms developed.

Finally, any evaluation must include information on public or user opinion concerning the DPR system. This particular information can be gathered through citizen surveys and interviews with force personnel at all levels.

Standardization of the communications function through operating procedures, training, performance measures and monitoring will have an impact on other force processes such as patrol, criminal investigations and new staffing needs in communications activity. A final step implementing a system-wide program such as DPR is to institutionalize it by ensuring that:

- the new system is taught in all training sessions from recruit to management
- that changes are made in the performance evaluations for both communications centre personnel and patrol officers.

Conclusion

Summary

The DPR program has effectively proven in North American forces that it can be successfully adapted to meet the needs of police forces in a variety of environments. Police forces can significantly reduce the number of non-emergency calls for service handled by immediate mobile dispatch, without sacrificing citizen satisfaction.

The concept of DPR offers a police force a method of structuring its response to calls for service. By categorizing incoming calls and police response, productivity of a force can be greatly enhanced.

One of the most significant implications of DPR is that it gives management control over the traditionally autonomous telecommunicators. As a result, communications centres are able to achieve greater uniformity, standardization, and accountability.

Moreover, in the event of a city-wide crisis, (e.g. toxic spill), a DPR system can enable the majority of officers to contain a volatile situation while all but emergency calls are diverted to alternative responses.

Finally, and perhaps most important, by handling calls differentially, a force can make the best use of the patrol officer's time, opening the door to problem-oriented policing, directed patrol and a variety of other contemporary policing strategies. For those police managers who are trying to answer the question "How can any force do proactive policing? It's all we can do to keep up with the calls for service", differential police response offers a starting point.

While the Differential Police Response Model provides benefits to be gained by a police department, it is only one rung in the ladder of resource allocation and utilization. It does provide, however, the key ingredient for the utilization of law enforcement's principal resource: **the officers and their uncommitted patrol time.**

It is only through the introduction of Differential Police Response that sufficient time can be captured leading to the successful implementation of community-based policing strategies.

Appendix A

Windsor Police Force

In September 1983, representatives of the Windsor Police Force spent two days in Toledo, Ohio, having been invited by the Toledo Police Department and as guests of the United States National Institute of Justice for a seminar on Differential Police Response.

Presentations were made by police departments from Greensboro, North Carolina, Garden Grove, Calif. and Toledo, Ohio on a two year research and development study of police responding to complaints and calls for service.

On returning from the seminar, Windsor Police Force management made an in-depth study of the force's operating procedures and it was unanimously agreed that better use could be made of its resources by changing the method of responding to calls. The main motivating factors were:

- the expanding number of requests for a great variety of police services
- increasingly restricted police resources and the need to utilize manpower more efficiently.

Management agreed that it was no longer practical or effective to dispatch a car to every call. The Differential Police Response System made good sense and its benefits included:

- improved service to the public
- more time available for uniformed police officers to be assigned to directed patrol or other investigative duties.

Programme objectives were:

- reduce the number of non-emergency calls for service handled by immediate mobile response;

- increase the number of non-emergency calls for service handled by alternative responses such as delayed mobile response, other agency referrals and the telephone response unit.
- increase availability for rapid mobile response.

On January 1, 1984, district boundary changes were made in Windsor affecting three districts, which helped to level off the work load in each district. The change came at a convenient time to correspond with the D.P.R. Emphasis was placed on the need for patrol units to serve their districts, and that they should be kept in those districts unless absolutely necessary.

Windsor's staff then began implementation procedures in the following manner:

1) Personnel Education

Education was considered to be of utmost importance to the new program's success. A written explanation of the program was used as a handout to uniformed personnel as well as communications staff. In addition, classroom sessions with communications centre staff were held.

2) System Implementation

- a. The first step was to emphasize the need to keep cars in their respective districts.
- b. A telephone unit was established and a trained uniformed officer (usually on "light duty") was placed in this position in the communications centre. One of the functions was to return citizens' calls for the purpose of taking reports.
- c. In addition to the telephone reporting unit, two other response techniques were implemented - "immediate mobile response" and "delayed mobile response". The criteria for determining such responses were displayed in a modified chart for the communications centre.
- d. A "call back" system was implemented and was addressed by the sergeant in charge of the communications centre (e.g. noisy parties).

Windsor *stressed* that if a citizen was adamant in his desire to see the police, a unit should be sent. It was also noted that the DPR system must be monitored closely and that adjustments would have to be made from time to time.

A policy and procedures manual was designed to train communications centre personnel in classifying calls for service according to the nature of the incident or request and time of occurrence. Information is gathered by the operator and the appropriate police response is determined. The response falls within one of three categories:

- PRIORITY 1: Immediate Mobile Response
- PRIORITY 2: Delayed Mobile Response
- PRIORITY 3: Call Back/Telephone Response Unit

1. Immediate Mobile Response

These calls, due to the seriousness of the occurrence, require the attendance of the police as quickly as possible.

2.. Delayed Mobile Response

The nature of the call dictates whether or not it is necessary for immediate attendance by the police. Calls in this classification are of a less urgent nature. The caller is notified by the operator that there will be a wait of up to sixty minutes. Such calls would include:

- Crimes against persons which occurred more than **fifteen** minutes prior to the complainant's call.
- Crimes against property which occurred more than **five** minutes prior to the call.
- Suspect is known **not** to be still in area.
- There is physical evidence at the scene.
- A suspect is in custody and posing no immediate problem (shoplifting, etc.)

3. Telephone Reporting Unit/Call Back Mode

Any type of "cold" call where a report can be made to an officer over the telephone; suspect is not at the scene or in the area and there is no information to assist in identifying the suspect.

Thefts and property damage with no suspects.

Lost property, noise complaints, animal complaints, etc.

The following information should provide an accurate overview of the first year of the Differential Police Response Program.

Status Report (12 Months)

	<u>1984</u>	<u>1985</u>	
Telephone Calls for Service	94,291	97,274	up 2,983
Mobile Responses	82,101	84,264	up 2,363
Reports taken by civilians in Communications Centre	8,024	1,395	down 6,629
Investigations handled by T.R.U.	n/a	8,400	

In 1985 the force handled 1,557 Priority 3 calls (which previously would have been responded to with a mobile response) through DPR. 975 of these would have been handled by the Supervisor in the Communications Centre. 582 were handled by the T.R.U. (Telephone Reporting Unit).

Statistics show that the average time taken to handle **Priority 3** calls by Mobile Response is **forty-seven** minutes.

The average time taken to handle **Priority 3** calls by telephone is **fifteen** minutes.

Statistics show that 29% of dispatched calls are handled by one officer on the day shift; 71% of dispatched calls are handled by two (2) man units on the afternoon and midnight shift.

The following is a breakdown of man hours involved in handling these calls by both methods of response:

Total Priority 3 Calls For Service - 1,557

29% - one (1) man unit - 452 calls

71% - two (2) man unit - 1,105 calls

Mobile Response

47 minutes x 451 calls = 354 man hours

47 minutes x 1,105 calls = 1,731 man hours

Total time to handle calls by Mobile Response = **2,085** man hours**Time saved by Differential Response System - 1,696 man hours**

These figures clearly indicate that more time is being made available to mobile units, allowing them to attend to the higher priority calls in a more efficient manner.

Other Benefits of Differential Police Response

- Field personnel are handling fewer calls of a minor nature.
- communications centre personnel now have more time to properly handle incoming complaints. The only reports done in that area now are missing persons and lost or stolen licence plates.
- Light duties personnel can once again be put back to work in a police capacity.

The results of this project show that Differential Police Response **does work** towards increasing the efficiency of handling calls for service, while **maintaining** citizen satisfaction with police service.

Call Classification

Incident: Person crimes and conflicts

Definition: Situations whereby one person injures another in a manner which involves potential criminal Liability. Includes person(s) involved in a dispute or altercation.

Mobile Police Response	Time			Injury			Over Ride	Alternatives
	In Progress Just Occured	Recent Occurrence 15 Minutes	Cold call Minor Nature, Report only, over an hour old	Actual	Probable	Potential		
Person Crimes and Conflicts							Citizen Demands Police Mobile Response	Referrals to agencies: Telephone Reporting Unit call back mode
Assaults	1	2	3	1	1	2	2	Hiatus House 252-7781
Child Abuse	1	2	2	1	1	2	2	C.A.S. 252-1171
Child Molestation	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	S.I.D./ C.A.S.
Domestic Violence	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	Hiatus House 252-7781
Homicide	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Kidnapping (& Attempts)	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	
Sexual Assault	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	Crisis Centre 253-9667
Robbery	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	
Indecent Exposure	1	2	3				2	Phone Report
Strike Scene, Riots	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	

Appendix B

Peel Regional Police Force

In September 1983 representatives of the Peel Regional Police Force attended the seminar on DPR in Toledo, Ohio.

On returning, a task force was formed to research and study the different forms of DPR. The task force combined the DPR program with a long-term plan towards a final goal of **community-based policing**.

The task force submitted the proposed program to the Advisory Board which consisted of the Chief and Deputy Chiefs. The Board in turn approved the DPR program and formal planning and preparation began for its implementation.

The Strategic Police Response program (known as **Differential Police Response**) has been designed to tackle three important operational problems confronting the Force:

- **the allocation of resources**
- **fulfilling the expectations of the citizens**
- **the management of response to calls for service.**

In reviewing the results of their DPR program, Peel Regional made the following recommendations:

- Increase the amount of relevant information obtained from callers by communications personnel
- Provide patrol officers with appropriate information to enhance officer safety
- Improve citizen satisfaction by informing callers of the mode of response being provided
- Increase patrol officer confidence with complaint information being provided by communications centre personnel
- Decrease the committed time of patrol officers, thereby enabling increased availability for directed patrol

- Increase police interaction with the community.

The underlying theme of Strategic Police Response is how officers work with the citizens of the community and how they respond to their calls for service.

Consistent with the philosophy of community-based policing, Peel has used a combination of DPR alternatives and has chosen to adopt those which work best for its own constituency.

In the implementation process, Peel felt that there were two important factors:

1. education of citizens
2. education of police and personnel

These two factors were important in order to reach an agreement on the public's expectations regarding police services.

This long-term Strategic Police Response system (SPR) includes programs on alarms, crime analysis and foot patrol. To date no formal evaluation process has been implemented.

A number of problems arose which were resolved by the Force:

1. SPR was being implemented at the same time as other operational programs. Although this is not an ideal course of action, it was unavoidable in Peel's case owing to the region's rapid growth and need for police services.
2. Officers had been in the communications centre for 3-4 years and it was a difficult transition to the new system.
3. By the time officers were trained in the communications centre, it was time for them to leave.
4. It was sometimes easier to train civilians in the communications centre than officers (e.g. officers had to be "de-briefed" and trained in a new system).

Such problems have also been encountered by other forces and should be anticipated in the early days of implementing the Differential Police Response system.

The Peel Regional communications centre employs a matrix similar to that found in the U.S. and Windsor. This is a useful tool designed to assist communications personnel in ranking the calls for service.

The matrix, when used in conjunction with the classification table, will generate a four-digit classification number. (See Exhibits 1-4)

There are three primary descriptors on the matrix, each used to generate a number. By matching a call for service into one of the nine categories, then working across the matrix, a four-character classification number will develop. The classification number can then be matched with its corresponding priority. Upon implementation of the C.A.D. system (Computer Assisted Dispatching), the number will cause the computer to automatically generate the priority assigned to the call for service.

Communications personnel, using the classification table together with the matrix will obtain more pertinent information for patrol officers and standardize the call ranking process.

The priorities are broken up into four categories:

- Priority 1** Immediate Dispatch
- Priority 2** Dispatch within 15 minutes
- Priority 3** Dispatch to arrive within one (1) hour
- Priority 4** Alternative Response to Mobile Dispatch

The following pages are examples of Peel Regional's Matrix System.

The matrix is to be used as an aid to establishing a four-digit incident code number. The incident code number is matched to a priority number which can be manually obtained and also generated by the C.A.D. system.

Example of incident code number established from the matrix:

<u>Call Classification</u>	<u>Time of Incident</u>	<u>Injury</u>	<u>Response Mode</u>
1	2	1	0
Crimes Against Person	Just Occurred	With Actual Injury	Always A Dispatched Call

1210

The first digit of the incident code signifies the call classification (1 through 9) listed on the left side of the matrix.

1210

The second digit of the incident code signifies time. It is the first of three descriptors listed at the top of the matrix. The time column is broken into four parts - 1. In progress; 2. Just occurred; 3. Cold; and 4. Follow-up. The descriptors listed at the top of the matrix determine the priority of the call.

In this system a cold call with little or no chance of apprehension would be of a lower priority, barring other descriptors such as actual injury, which would have the effect of again raising the priority.

1210

The third digit of the incident code signifies whether or not an injury has taken place, is likely to take place, or possibly may take place. Note the 'injury' descriptors indicates that an injury has taken place or may occur. If no injury has occurred and there is no longer the threat of injury, '0' is entered as the third digit of the incident code.

1210

The fourth and last digit of the incident code signifies the 'response mode' that is what type of response should the call receive (dispatch of mobile unit vs. non-dispatch). Most of the events in the nine call classifications are dispatched if the incident is in progress or has just occurred, making apprehension and or identification likely. This is signified by '0' for immediate dispatch (Priority #1).

The second option in the 'response mode' of the matrix is 'override'. Override signifies that a mobile response is necessitated based on statutory requirements or citizen demand. Override is designated by the number '1'. Calls for service categorized as an override are to be dispatched so that an officer arrives within one hour. Override will only be used in conjunction with cold calls or follow-up reports.

The third option in the 'response mode' of the matrix is 'Telephone Reporting Centre' (T.R.C.). A T.R.C. report will be diverted to another resource rather than dispatching a patrol unit. The majority of these reports will be diverted to the 'Telephone Reporting Centre'.

The last option in the 'response mode' section of the matrix is a 'Priority 3 Dispatch'. Calls assigned to the Priority 3 Dispatch response would be those calls designated by force policy and would be dispatched to arrive in 1 hour.

Peel Regional based their Strategic Police Response on Garden Grove Police Department's DPR program and have had excellent results so far. Peel is noted for its research efforts and pre-planning activities for their S.P.R. program, and has been consulted on S.P.R. by other Ontario police forces.

Peel Regional Force prides itself on its ongoing efforts to apply community-based policing strategies to meet the needs of its citizens.

Shaping the Future

WORKING WITH COMMUNITY AGENCIES



Ministry of the
Solicitor General and
Correctional Services



Working with Community Agencies

A manual for building inter-agency partnerships

Ministry of the Solicitor General
and Correctional Services of Ontario
and
Ministry of the Solicitor General
of Canada

Richard Weiler
Colleen Ryan
Richard Weiler and Associates

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Preface

Working with Community Agencies was prepared under contract for the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada by Richard Weiler and Colleen Ryan of Richard Weiler and Associates, Ottawa, Ontario.

This report is part of a series of manuals on community policing produced jointly by the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario and the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada. The objective of the series is to provide information on the implementation of community policing, focusing on planning, management processes, training and operational strategies. These reports are designed for use by all members of the police services, police services boards, community groups, students of policing/criminology, educational facilities, police college instructors, and government officials.

Barry Leighton & Marsha Mitzak
Series Editors

NOTE: *The views expressed in this report are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario or the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada.*

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Table of Contents

INTRODUCTION	1
Using This Manual	1
SECTION 1: WORKING WITH COMMUNITY AGENCIES	2
Challenges in Working with Community Agencies	2
The Problem-Solving Process	5
Problem-Oriented Policing Process and Inter-Agency Cooperation	6
SECTION 2: WHO ARE THE COMMUNITY AGENCIES?	11
Formal Community Agencies	11
Self-Help Groups	15
Inter-agency Arrangements	16
SECTION 3: COMMUNITY AGENCIES AND COMMUNITY POLICING	19
Working Together to Help Victims	19
Specialist Approach	22
Generalist Approach	25
Crime Prevention Strategies	25
SECTION 4: COMMUNITY-BASED PROGRAMS	33
Healthy Communities	34
Local Economic Initiative	36
Local Social Planning	36
CONCLUSION	38
APPENDIX I	40
APPENDIX II	42
ENDNOTES	44

Introduction

As police forces move to community policing they are re-establishing their traditional contacts with the community. Individual and community organizations and agencies are becoming partners with the police, addressing public safety, crime prevention and law enforcement. This manual is for those responsible for managing and providing community policing and deals with the important -- often essential -- role which community agencies can assume in this new partnership.

Using This Manual

For police officers, this manual provides a step-by-step look at how to work with community agencies using a problem-solving approach.

Section Two introduces problem-solving and the kinds of agencies you might find in your community. It provides guidance on how to pursue contacts with appropriate agencies and addresses the value of collaborating with them.

Section Three, contains several examples of community policing in collaboration with community agencies. These examples fall into three categories: helping crime victims, preventing crime through social programs aimed at preventing criminal behaviour, and preventing crime through opportunity reduction strategies. Programs currently under way are examined and their implications for community policing are noted.

Section Four looks at other community-based programs across Canada which, while not obviously linked to policing, may contribute to crime prevention by making communities safer and better places to live. The implications of such initiatives for community policing are considered.

The manual concludes with a summary of suggested actions to take in developing partnerships with community agencies and provides suggestions on how to involve community agencies. Appendices include a selected glossary of social development terminology and a suggested training.

Section 1:

Working With Community Agencies

When is it useful to deal with community agencies and how do you find and approach them? This section is intended to help you answer these questions. It offers some suggestions on preparing to participate with agencies. It shows, with examples, how collaborating with community agencies is an essential part of problem-solving and effective community policing. It provides some understanding of how agencies are organized and finally, offers advice on how you might assess which agencies within your community are working on the problems you have identified.

Challenges in Working with Community Agencies

Why work with community agencies? The simple answer is that social problems have many aspects including criminal, social and legal. The complexity of problems such as family violence, sexual abuse of children and treatment of young offenders defy straightforward solutions from one agency. Despite all the logistical and organizational barriers, Canadian police are turning to inter-agency and inter-professional collaboration to deal with complex legal and social concerns. These collaborations involve police and community agencies dealing with education, social housing, social services, health and recreation. To be successful, cooperation between agencies must focus on overcoming fragmentation, duplication of services, and overlapping of responsibilities. It is however, more commonly used to encourage effective interaction and communication among organizations when the police are involved.

Experience suggests that when police officers work in partnership with community agencies they should be aware that the path ahead is not always smooth. Collaboration is, in the long run, worthwhile, but there are several common challenges facing police. Here are a few words of advice:

- **Be clear about what you can accomplish, and about which agency will perform which functions.** Agencies have different mandates, clienteles and operating philosophies. For example, an outreach street-level program for youth at risk will not supply information that could link a youth to a crime. It is easy for organizations to become involved in inter-agency collaboration because it would appear to be a good way to solve the problem. But it is more difficult to decide on a goal and to choose the appropriate organization. Be as clear as possible. Interagency coordination targeted at family violence, addiction, vandalism and other such issues can easily "backfire" when the agreed upon solutions cannot be accomplished.

- **Be clear about the responsibilities of each organization.** These duties can often cause conflict if they are not discussed and sorted out early in the game. For example, agencies are often expected to respect the confidentiality of their clients, while the police are sworn to investigate crimes. Which is more important -- confidentiality or law enforcement -- when agencies and police are working together? If an agency knows a client has committed a crime, is it better to help the client solve his or her problems, or to hand the client over to the police? In the case of an alcoholic parent involved in petty theft, a social agency sees the solution as addiction counselling and family support, rather than charging the parent with theft. How do collaborators reconcile these requirements while at the same time working towards the solution of crime-related problems? How do agencies react to diversion strategies which are often employed with young offenders? In such cases, a young person confesses their guilt and agrees to do community service or to make restitution to the victim, without ever having been in court. Such conflicting concerns need to be addressed by participating agencies.
- **Be clear about what you can provide to an inter-agency effort.** (Also be clear about what other organizations can and will provide.) How much information can police provide -- criminal records, tracing of license plates, information on investigations under way? How much discretion can you exercise in a collaborative action to address a problem? Can you agree to forego charging persons who have committed crimes when community agencies argue that it is wiser to deal with the underlying problem, such as poverty or alcoholism?
- **Reach a common understanding and commitment to address an issue.** This is an important step. Agencies often perceive problems and their solutions in different ways. A problem that is top priority for one agency may be seen as impossible to solve or as a low priority by another agency. The way organizations can respond to a problem is often limited by their mandates, resources or other constraints.
- **Make sure that the response to the problem you agree on does not have any negative effects on groups living in the community.** That is, make sure the answer "fits" the community in question and does not leave any members of the community out of the picture. Often agencies assume certain cultural, economic and class values without being aware of them and these values undermine the integrity and participation of other groups in society. For example, a counselling agency provides help for people from the middle and upper classes but because it charges a fee, excluding the disadvantaged. Community programs such as Neighbourhood Watch are often more acceptable and successful in upper-middle-class neighbourhoods than in working and lower-class areas.

Remember that the values and attitudes of the police force may conflict with the values of some community agencies, thus posing a barrier to working together. For example, some women's groups believe that many police officers hold a traditionally "male" view of problems affecting women, such as sexual assault and wife assault. Incidents in which police fail to charge wife batterers, or doubt the word of victims of sexual assault, lead women's groups to question the willingness of police forces to solve these problems. Therefore, women's groups may hesitate to work with police, or be very wary of police involvement. It is important to be clear, when working with such groups, about where the police stand on these issues. Reassure groups that you intend to act in the best interests of the citizens.

Similarly, police forces may be considered insensitive to the beliefs and values of ethnic communities. Police shootings of black men and incidents of discrimination against native Canadians by police, have raised widespread concern about the way police officers treat minorities. Ethnic community groups are often of the view that the police are intentionally discriminating against certain minorities. They argue that the police do not understand or respect the specific attitudes and values which certain ethnic groups have towards police that is, police power and intrusion may be seen as a negative influence on the community and the family. Working with community groups representing ethnic communities or minorities can often be worthwhile; it is important, though, to be aware of the climate of trust that must be created to work together successfully.

Some organizations are concerned that police often impose their views and approaches instead of working with the community to solve problems. Lack of consultation can lead to conflict. For example, in one multicultural community, police were working with local groups and agencies to address several crime problems, including drug dealing and vandalism. Despite the understanding that the course of action would be determined by all agencies involved, the police began to conduct a series of body searches with no prior notice. Agency representatives and community leaders were angry with police for conducting the searches, which in turn jeopardized the success of future collaborative efforts.

There are often long-standing differences in the attitudes of police officers and professionals working with social development groups. Their training and experience with crime and its causes can be quite different, resulting in deep-seated mutual mistrust and disrespect.

Some professionals may not want to get involved with the police at all, because of a perception that formal involvement can undermine a comprehensive approach to identifying and dealing with community crime problems. Some organizations argue that the police do not have the resources or responsibility to address the problem. In fact,

they believe, police participation can result in a holding back on serious social, economic and cultural environmental solutions to complex community problems.

The Problem-Solving Process

Problem-solving is an important means of dealing more effectively with the crime and social order incidents which concern community agencies and the police.

One of the essential components of effective problem-solving is identifying community agencies and understanding how to link with them. It is important to understand the perspective that various agencies bring to a problem. For example, a family violence situation may be seen as a violence problem by a family violence agency, as an alcoholism problem by a substance abuse group, as emotional instability by a family service agency.

Agencies involved in matters of child protection, family violence and substance abuse treatment may share with the police an understanding of multi-problem families in a neighbourhood. Educators and those involved in employment preparation, however, may consider the situation in a different light since their focus is on the educational potential and employment potential of family members.

Agencies can contribute to the problem-solving process in different ways, depending on their responsibilities. It is important at the outset to establish which responsibilities the agency assumes. Should it co-ordinate the response to the problem by other agencies? Does it conduct planning? Or does it deliver services directly to clients? The responsibilities of agencies will affect their point of view of the problem.

Community agencies can be key players in helping police to determine which problems are the most pressing and will receive priority attention. As noted in Problem-Oriented Policing¹ (in this series) a number of factors should be considered when selecting problems including:

- The impact of the problem -- how big a problem is it? How many people are affected?
- The seriousness of the problem -- how much danger or damage does it cause? Is there public concern about the problem? What are the consequences of the problem for the community and the police force? Is it a public or political issue? Will the problem have an impact on police relations with the community?
- The complexity of the problem -- How complex or deep-rooted is this problem? How much time and money will it cost the force to deal with it?

- The solvability of the problem -- Can police efforts have a real impact on the problem?
- The interests in solving the problem -- No matter how valid the problem, both the police force and the community or public must be interested in resolving it.

Another important factor, of course, is how involved local agencies already are in addressing community problems. The involvement of agencies should be taken into account in determining what priority the police should give to problems and what role the agencies could play in resolving them. This will ensure that duplication of effort does not occur.

An inherent element of this new approach is crime analysis. Collaboration and cooperation with the people, organizations and agencies affected by those problems is, hence, necessary. In the community policing model, the police can no longer see themselves solely as part of a criminal justice system. Rather, they are integral players in the broader spectrum of the community human services system. It is therefore necessary for both the police force and the community to re-evaluate their roles in addressing crime, criminal behaviour and crime prevention. Police officers must become problem-solvers as well as problem-responders. The community also can become more involved by providing added assistance to police. The police begin to work with, rather than for the community. The essence of this new relationship is that the police act as catalysts, helping the community to deal with a reoccurring problem rather simply responding to individual incidents.

Problem-Oriented Policing Process and Inter-Agency Cooperation

The problem-solving process is made up of four distinct stages, each of which should be assessed and implemented carefully and efficiently to address a crime problem². While each of the functions can be undertaken by police forces, the following four sections will argue that collaborative participation of community agencies can make efforts more successful.

1. Problem Identification

The first stage is identifying and defining the problem. To determine whether a problem is appropriate, three basic criteria should be applied.

First, a problem involves a number of repeated or related incidents. Basically, if an incident or call for service is likely to be repeated (i.e., a particular pattern of break and enters in a neighbourhood), or even appears to be a repetition (e.g. repeated domestic violence calls from a particular home; chronic thefts from a

certain location; repeated sexual assaults in a park, etc.), then this may constitute an appropriate problem police for problem-solving.

Second, the incidents or events should be related in some way (e.g. a pattern of offenses committed by adolescents in a particular region of the city), so that aspects of the individual problems can be linked together.

Third, a problem should be of concern not only to the police, but to the community as well. The full identification and implementation of the problem-solving process is not feasible without the support of the community. It is therefore important that the issue be a concern to both the police and the community.

It is important to identify at this stage who should be consulted to identify the problem. While the police may note problems through their programs, operations, crime analysis and program planning, the key source of problem identification is still the community, its citizens and agencies. Do they recognize the "problem" as a major concern? Is there a common understanding of the underlying behaviour, the location of crimes and the identity of suspected offenders or victims? Do they assess the **"problem" in the same way the police do?**

Social agencies may consider a problem in a different light than police. An agency might consider chronic criminal behaviour by a young person as a reflection of his or her family life, and attempt to influence family conditions as a way of stopping the behaviour. Community agencies often possess extensive material to aid in identifying problems, including studies, surveys, service utilization patterns and client profiles.

There are various ways police can get community agencies involved. Some collaborative efforts are started by police simply by consulting individually with selected agencies. Other collaborations start through formal mechanisms. Many Canadian police forces, for example, are engaged in setting up advisory groups, usually composed of representatives of the various interest groups in the community together with agency leaders. These community or neighbourhood-based bodies collaborate in the problem-solving process.

Community organizations are a valuable and readily accessible source of information, for they know the community and are credible among its citizens. At this stage of the problem-solving process, consulting with these organizations and service agencies is a good way of reaching a large number of community members to identify and delineate properly the problem to be addressed.

2. Analysis

The second stage in problem-solving involves the analysis of the problem by gathering and interpreting information. The information should be diverse and comprehensive and should not, therefore, be restricted to conventional police sources such as crime data. There are a wide variety of potentially valuable sources of information within the community. For example, many service and social development agencies conduct their own needs assessments and client surveys which can provide useful information regarding the needs and characteristics of the communities involved.

The benefit of using information from social agencies can be shown in the example of a recently established municipal committee to deal with the problem of young people involved in crime. This committee, established by a community organization, is composed of representatives from numerous community and voluntary agencies, as well as a number of agencies in the criminal justice system, including the police. The purpose of organizing the group was to share information that each of these agencies possessed in order to assess the characteristics of young persons in conflict with the law and how they were dealt with by local agencies. Each of the agencies collected data on the needs of their clientele who fit the category. This data was then analyzed and interpreted, ultimately allowing all participants to consider the problem of youth and crime in a much more comprehensive way than was possible on their own.

Of course, there are some obvious precautions to be taken in this type of experience. The data police require about clients is not always available and social development agencies may be concerned with protecting their clients. In addition, there is often some competition for power in the problem-solving process among the participating members.

A useful, but widely untapped, source of information about the community is contained in the extensive socio-demographic studies of community population, its characteristics and needs, now being undertaken by many Canadian communities. Such studies are often conducted by agencies responsible for planning and coordinating services, including the planning forces of municipalities, social planning councils, or community health planning organizations. In some instances, the perspective is general. In other cases, studies can highlight information about specific groups, such as the circumstances of visible minority groups or single-parent families. Such studies are usually based on analysis of existing data: census information, community surveys and consultations. These reviews provide not only an appreciation of the overall community, but can also provide specialized information on certain areas within the community.

For example, in 1985, the Social Planning Council of Ottawa-Carleton produced a booklet entitled *Trends*, which provides selected demographic data, statistics and commentary about 12 basic survival needs including income, health, housing, food, clothing, transportation, education and child care. The report also gives profiles of

various disadvantaged persons, including street people and makes recommendation to address the needs identified.

3. Response

Information-sharing processes are vital not only in developing a comprehensive understanding of the problem, but also in responding to it. During the third, or response stage of the problem-solving process, solutions are selected and implemented. Experience with successful problem-solving shows that the more specific the response strategy, the more effective it is. The strategy to be implemented depends, to a large extent, on the objectives established. For example, you should consider whether you wish to: a) totally eliminate a problem, b) substantially reduce a problem, c) reduce the harm caused by or impact of a problem, d) improve police response to problems, or e) redefine who is responsible for the problem. There are usually several strategic responses which can be followed. The approach adopted must be carefully thought out and directly related to the overall objectives set by the problem-solving team.

Solutions should involve non-police agencies and other organizations, rather than relying completely on patrols and investigations. This is an important principle; keep in mind that police responses are appropriate only to certain situations. Involving outside organizations and agencies is critical because these organizations have access to resources and expertise that police forces lack. Agency involvement can mean many things, ranging from simple referrals of clients to agencies, to encouraging agencies to play a greater role in responding to shared problems.

In a recent venture taken on by an inter-agency committee to identify youth needs, the parties involved set up an inventory of services for youth at risk or in conflict with the law. These services ranged from basic services within the juvenile justice system such as probation services and alternative measures, to programs designed to meet the basic needs of youth such as crisis intervention, and employment and training programs. This inventory, developed by a host of agencies and community organizations including the police, helps the participants to better address the needs and problems of the youth in their community.

The community's identification of youth needs and development of a service inventory provided the basis for agencies to begin to design services and programs for youth. The goal is to fill the gaps in existing services in order to reduce the rate of youth crime, or at least reduce the likelihood that a young person will repeat his or her behaviour.

4. Evaluation

The final stage evaluation, provides the participating agencies with a picture of how well the response works. This is most important in overcoming the recent tendency to focus on the means over the ends. The reactive form of policing often stressed efficiency rather than preventing, reducing or eliminating problems. Evaluation of the response to **problems can be used to change** the response, improve the analysis, or even redefine the nature of the problem. The extent to which the police play a role in this process will vary, depending on the nature of the strategy and how much police work is included in implementing the strategy.

Evaluating various elements of community policing programs is addressed in various texts as well as two other manuals in this series. These sources address the two main types of evaluation. **Process evaluation** is primarily concerned with descriptive analyses based on the implementation of the strategy. **Impact evaluation**, on the other hand, assesses the effect of the strategy on the problem. The literature notes the merit of various evaluation methods and concludes that the decision as to which method should be used should be based upon realistic goals and objectives established before implementing the strategy.

No matter what form of evaluation is conducted, it is generally recognized that evaluations are important in determining whether programs are cost-effective, in providing the knowledge required to tailor the program, and in helping police to plan programs and allocate management and resources.

When developing evaluations, police working with other agencies must take several factors into account. First, it is important to understand the results of the police involvement in the context of the overall inter-agency strategy. For example, how has police involvement in developing an interprofessional protocol on child sexual abuse resulted in greater police participation and in the effectiveness of the overall strategy?

Second, evaluation calls for a set of goals and objectives which can be measured. It is not always easy to set such objectives and to measure the impact of interagency efforts. Objectives of various agencies vary widely. Thus, while introducing a "watch program" in a neighbourhood might limit or reduce theft, it may not limit other forms of anti-social behaviour of the young persons. Therefore, while the police see the program as effective, it might not meet the objectives of a youth organization. It is often very difficult to measure the impact of social strategies on the behaviour of individuals and families, but efforts should be made to do so.

Section 2:

Who Are The Community Agencies?

Each community will have a different set of community agencies. Some smaller communities have few formal community-based services. In larger communities, the way social services are organized often depends on how the province and municipality share responsibilities for education, welfare, health care, employment preparation and so on. Even community voluntary organizations will differ depending on several factors: which services are the responsibility of the public sector, whether governments have traditionally "contracted out" services to voluntary organizations, and whether there is community support for voluntary organizations.

There are, however, some common themes and trends which can help you find the appropriate community services. This section provides some guidance in finding services. It deals with both the formal type of community agency as well as with self-help groups, which also play a role as community agencies. It also provides information about how you can determine "what is happening" in your community.

Formal Community Agencies

Community agencies can be organized in a number of ways:

- **Community Public Agencies**

This refers to organizations which, in fact, are funded and directed by governments. They may be run by an appointed or elected Board of Trustees -- such as most municipal school boards, public health boards, etc. -- but they are essentially accountable to the sponsoring government.

- **Private Agencies**

These are private companies providing services such as day care, residential services for seniors, etc. They are usually contracted by government to provide services and are publicly inspected to ensure that the service meets public standards.

Voluntary Sector Agencies

These are non-profit organizations usually guided by a community board of trustees or governors. They often have support to meet their responsibilities from governments, and from local funding efforts, e.g. community United Ways. These organizations usually involve both staff and volunteers.

Community agencies have a variety of responsibilities of concern to community police including:

Community social planning, co-ordination and service provision

Social planning involves setting up policies and programs to address the social needs of citizens or a community. This can be conducted by agencies set up for the sole purpose of planning programs in the areas of health, social welfare and education. For example, social planning is often carried out by social planning councils and community health planning bodies.

Community and social services organizations are responsible for providing the many services usually found in a community -- education, social housing, health, social services, employment preparation, welfare and recreation services. Such services can be available to the population at large, or designed for specific groups, such as young single mothers, youth at risk, etc. They can also be aimed at groups with other characteristics, such as age (seniors services) or location (neighbourhood services).

Physical environment planning services

Community planning agencies are organisations responsible to a municipal or regional government. They usually assume many responsibilities, including:

- research, consultation and long-term planning involved in the development of a community's official plan.
- ensuring that official plans are implemented, including approving condominium applications, zoning bylaw amendments, severance application and the development of special housing such as group homes.

Planning organizations tend to co-ordinate their efforts with local social and health planning councils and school boards. They increasingly seek the views of special interest groups and community organizations in their work.

There are a number of trends which should be considered in identifying the relevant agencies in your community:

1. Social Housing

Social housing usually refers to subsidized public housing provided to low-income persons. While generally concentrated in large public housing developments, a recent trend is to place subsidized housing units among regular housing. Housing developments or community agencies often have professional staff "on site" to provide social housing tenants with direct services, such as crisis intervention, counselling, assistance to tenant groups, referral assistance and guidance on tenant-based problem solving.

In many social housing developments, there is a growth in tenant-run self-help groups, whose work is often closely tied to the interests of community police.

Self-help initiatives may focus on property improvement and protection, promoting respect for tenant rights, providing recreation for youth, embarking on local economic development projects and providing family support programs. In dealing with a public housing community, it is important to:

- Establish contact with social service professionals involved with the housing development. What are they doing? What do they know about programs and tenant involvement in issues of concern to the police? How are professionals (including the police) accepted by residents of the development?
- Identify and establish contact with the tenant leaders. Tenant groups may not understand the problem or see solutions in the same way the police do. They may have concerns regarding acceptable roles for the police in their community. Their views, values and commitment to be "in charge" must be understood and respected in developing effective collaboration.

2. Education

Despite the increasing financial constraints on most education systems, there are a number of noteworthy service trends in the school system. Schools are increasingly assuming responsibility for providing education for "exceptional" students in the "mainstream" school system. Exceptional students include those with learning disabilities, emotional difficulties and social skills limitations. Some of these young people are living in treatment homes and require considerable professional support. Some tend to be disruptive in school and are considered at high risk of developing criminal behaviour. Schools often have special education staff, counsellors and community outreach staff to

help these students. Many schools are experimenting with ways to involve the parents of students with learning problems or multiple family problems. Finally, schools continue to provide community outreach programs for students -often in lower-class neighbourhoods. In these programs, workers help young people and their families in their neighbourhoods and homes.

Community police should determine what programs the schools in their area offer.

- Who are the special support staff? Are they involved in organizing activities outside of school? Are they participating in inter-agency efforts in the area?
- Does the school provide services for parents and students, such as access to recreational and sports facilities, space for community drop-in programs, etc.?

3. Social, Welfare and Community Health Agencies

These organizations generally provide basic services such as adoption, foster care placement, inoculating children against illnesses, providing welfare payments, etc. While increased public demands, coupled with tighter budgets, has resulted in many of these organizations cutting back on non-essential outreach programs, many agencies continue to pursue creative programs. For example, agencies might encourage the development of self-help groups or provide group counselling. These organizations may also support a group of "front-line" workers involved at the neighbourhood level (much like community police working out of community "mini-stations"). They may participate actively in neighbourhood-based collaboration with other agency staff.

In developing a community policing program, is it important to determine:

- Which agencies service the area with which programs? How are they organized?
- Is neighbourhood inter-agency collaboration going on? In what areas of interest? Service planning? How can the police participate?

4. Employment Preparation Program

These programs are usually designed to help unemployed people having difficulty in finding or keeping a job. Programs vary: most are often neighbourhood-based and provided by a community group or organization such as the YM-YWCA. They are usually aimed at persons with specific needs, such as single parents and youth at risk. Services may be provided within the agency or on work sites. These programs are increasingly important to disadvantaged persons on welfare seeking a job. While it is not

their main job, program staff often become very aware of a wide range of personal and social problems affecting their clients. These problems could include family violence, alcohol abuse in the family, special needs of their children, etc. Community policing programs should take note of such programs and determine what/how staff could get involved in the neighbourhood police effort.

Self-Help Groups

Self-help groups are key resources in achieving community policing goals and are assuming a major place in providing services, influencing public opinion, and advocating change. These groups usually involve persons suffering from and dealing with common conditions. The rapidly growing self-help movement in Canada represents a wide and diverse range of interests including personal emotional, physical or mental difficulties (such as Alcoholics Anonymous, groups for female victims of incest, etc.); helping persons who are supporting family members in difficulty (such as family support groups for families or people with Alzheimer's disease); supporting victims of crime, and groups concerned with promoting a safer community (Block Parent groups).

Self-help groups are generally composed of people who share a common condition or concern. They provide members with emotional support, share experiences and coping methods and together, discover new ones. In coming to terms with their personal situations, members of a group will often embark on a social activist agenda. For example, many victims' groups work to influence social attitudes towards violence. Self-help groups are thus flexible in the roles they assume and their influence can be considerable. Thus, for example, neighbourhood seniors' networks maintain regular contact with each other in order to diminish the fear of crime, but they also provide substantial social benefits by diminishing social isolation.

The self-help group, while not a panacea, can be a useful option to dealing with individual family or community issues of concern to you as community police practitioners by:

- providing individuals with support in dealing with a condition or situation. The situation is non-professional and help, in most cases, is available.
- providing persons with an opportunity to participate in dealing with an issue. Those seeking personal assistance become involved in the 'helper-therapy process' -- the technical term for giving and receiving help at the same time.

Inter-agency Arrangements

Many communities have already developed a range of inter-agency mechanisms. They may be organized, with specific timeframes, to deal with a particular community concern, such as inter-agency groups that were set up to develop a family violence service network. The groups can be involved in a variety of agency responsibilities, such as program planning or coordination. They can include a variety of players: self-help groups, private companies, public and private agencies. Inter-agency organizations can be categorized as:

- Program co-ordination groups. These mechanisms involve several organizations in planning and coordinating programs, such as an inter-agency response to family violence, or to determine the services needed to deal with young offenders.
- Service co-ordination groups. These groups are usually established to "mesh" services provided by various agencies. Such groups may be involved in designing and coordinating inter-agency protocols. They assess and review specific cases of criminal behaviour or child abuse. The activities of these groups are regular and formal; for instance, they meet regularly to share information and refer clients.
- Ad hoc co-ordination groups are often informal and involve persons from the neighbourhood. These groups tend to share information, refer clients and develop team strategies to deal with community problems. Members work together informally for a number of reasons. They may be concerned that "head office" does not condone sharing work with other agencies and conducting joint problem solving. Agencies may have difficulty defending the idea of sharing information because of their confidentiality requirements.

Each of these types of inter-agency mechanisms can be of value in achieving community police goals, as we will demonstrate in Section 3.

How to Identify Agencies in Your Community

There are various ways to determine which agencies are in your community, what roles they play, and to what extent they collaborate with each other. Getting in touch with one major agency can be a good start. In most instances, major community agencies responsible for health, social services, recreation, and welfare services are aware of what goes on in their communities. Professors in social work, community health and urban planning departments of colleges and universities are also usually well aware of what exists in the community. Finally, planning and co-ordination agencies such as health planning councils, social planning councils, and local United Ways often provide various inventories. These guides can be most instructive.

An inventory of community services is a key source of information and referrals. Inventories include information on community programs in social services, housing, recreation, and community health; and specialized services for the disadvantaged (mentally handicapped, native persons, etc.). Inventories are designed to be used by agencies, organization, and individuals who need to know about programs within their community. Clearly, they are also crucial sources of information for community police, both to refer victims and offenders to appropriate agencies, and to get a feel for the complex range of agencies in the community.

The nature of services and programs listed in an inventory will vary depending on the nature of the inventory itself. Some directories are very general while others are designed for specific target groups such as child abuse victims, youth at risk, senior citizens, self-help groups, etc. For example, a specialized inventory of Services for Victims of Child Abuse, usually provides a description of the direct service and advocacy groups for the victims of child sexual and physical abuse. A general directory, however, is usually designed to provide an easy reference to the major services in the fields of health, welfare, education, and recreation. For example, the Directory of Community Services for the Waterloo Region gives details on programs of more than 400 non-profit and government organizations, mainly for social service professionals. The scope of the inventory can usually be determined from the title or from a brief description of the kinds of services covered in the introduction.

To guide you, most directories include various indices and a table of contents. An alphabetical index is a quick reference if you know which organization you are looking for. A subject index is particularly useful, as it provides a list of all the organizations providing a certain service, under heading such as "law enforcement", "crime prevention", "victim services", "crisis intervention", etc. Several inventories also include a table of contents which gives a listing of the major topics covered in the directory. For example, the table of contents of one directory included in services for "youth at risk and/or in conflict with the law" listed the enclosed services under the following heading: (1) Programs for youth 12 to 15 years of age; (2) Programs for youth 16 to 17 years of age; (3) Programs for youth of various ages.

Most inventories include descriptions of all relevant services -- descriptions that are detailed enough for the user to develop a good understanding of what the program is all about and who can best benefit from its services. Each program description should include the name of the program, address and phone number, and the name of a contact person. For example, in the inventory of Services for Victims of Child Abuse, a description reads:

Family Services of Greater Vancouver:
Vancouver - Florence Clayden - 731-4951

They provide group therapy for adults who were sexually abused as children. They also run 'Project Parent' which helps reunite parents with their children who have been removed by Ministry of Human Resources. The program is directed toward helping parents cope with parenting.

Several of the program descriptions may also include particulars of the program and are designed to aid in making appropriate referrals. The information outlined may include eligibility criteria for admittance to the program, hours of operation, maximum number of clients, and any other specific information required to make an appropriate referral.

There are advantages and disadvantages to both general and specialized inventories. The obvious advantage to using the specialized directory is that it generally gives a more comprehensive listing and description of the services for a specific problem or client. However, in using the specialized directory, you run a risk of overlooking a service or program that, although not directly related to the client's problem, could benefit him or her. The limitation of using a general directory is that, given the vast number of services and programs available, some relevant programs are not listed or fully described.

The police can both draw on self-help groups and may also encourage their formation as means of addressing the needs of individuals and families. Beyond their knowledge and experience, which may be valuable in crime prevention, you may wish to simply inform yourself about which groups exist in your community, and which self-help groups might be suited to dealing with community needs or problems you have noted. This understanding can be realized through:

- contacting self-help clearinghouses in large cities. These centres provide a number of services including information on groups, referrals, and advice on how to start self-help groups.
- contacting community service organizations concerned with specific areas of need such as crime victims organizations, hospital and so on.
- contacting community organizations responsible for planning and funding these organizations, e.g. social planning council or United Way.

Other service inventories might refer to self-help groups. Appendix 3 notes some names and organizations you can call upon to learn more about self-help groups and their relevance to community policing.

Section 3:

Community Agencies and Community Policing

How can community policing be realized through involvement with community agencies? In this section, a number of actual examples of police and community agencies working together to share information, plan, coordinate action, or provide services is presented. The illustrations deal with two areas where collaboration is happening: victim services (with an emphasis on family violence) and crime prevention. In each of the examples, we will explain the implications for community policing principles and practice.

Working Together to Help Victims

The exact way in which police participate in victim services varies with the model or approach used. The three most common approaches employed when addressing the needs of victims are: (1) the Collaborative or InterAgency Program Planning Model, (2) the Service Planning Model (those dealing with inter-agency protocols), and (3) the Direct Service Model.

Collaborative/Inter-Agency Planning Model

Many police forces provide direct services to crime victims, and, through that work, have established a rapport with area agencies to provide a network of support to these victims. In addition to direct services, forces have joined inter-agency committees composed of professionals in the criminal justice and social service fields and designed for sharing information, program planning and improving existing services.

This inter-agency approach is based on the notion that no one agency or profession has the expertise, experience or exposure to all the needs of crime victims. The demand for services for crime victims points to the need for a collaborative effort. It is important to have a wide range of professional services to help care for crime victims in the long term.

Some of the projects which can be carried out in a collaborative effort include: cooperating on policy, training and service, improving referral information for professionals; and increasing public awareness of the problem.

In St. John's, Newfoundland, an inter-agency working group was established in response to several problems: a substantial rise in the number of sexual abuse cases; few services for victims and little police capacity to help them; and little public understanding of the

seriousness of sexual abuse³. A number of sub-committees were established to deal with educational, social, treatment policy and justice issues. Based on these collaborative efforts, participants decided to share information through compiling a comprehensive directory of relevant services and resources. In addition, public education and awareness programs were devised, an inter-agency interdisciplinary protocol was developed, and service networks were set up.

Much can be accomplished by such a committee. Success is usually due, in part, to its interprofessional structure and, in part to the process pursued by the committee and the substantial commitment of its members. Success is not always guaranteed, however. Several difficulties can arise when: the tasks undertaken are too complex and diverse, the authorities responsible for change are not available to the committee, there is insufficient support staff or the members of the committee change frequently.

Inter-agency committees have encountered other difficulties. In London, Ontario, a coordinating committee was created to analyze research on how well the criminal justice system responded to family violence, and to take appropriate action. Community professionals -- the police, adult probation and parole judges, a Crown Attorney, a local defence lawyer and a representative of a shelter for battered women -- had to identify problems jointly if they wished to change the laws that were failing to protect women from abusive husbands.

In subsequent investigation, additional concerns came to light, including a lack of coordination of services, a lack of awareness on the part of psychologists, psychiatrists and welfare case workers, and a lack of co-ordination within the criminal justice system in services to victims. For example, court administrators pointed out that court policies were, unintentionally, not supporting victims of wife battering. Recommendations were made and implemented on the basis of the committee's research, leading to more responsive attitudes toward victims of wife assault, and better services for them.

The London Coordinating Committee on Family Violence went through a process of change as several early conflicts were resolved. One of the major issues encountered, and which many other coordinating committees seem to experience, is the issue of trust. Because the committee was composed of a variety of people and professionals with very diverse backgrounds, differing philosophies, and approaches to family violence, it is not surprising that some prospective members were apprehensive at first about working with the others.

Competition for funding was a second issue which inhibited trust and cooperation. Since several of the services involved received funding from the same source, it was a logical concern among members that increased funding to one service could mean a decrease to another service.

These issues often take time, communication, and cooperation to resolve. One of the key factors in moving away from distrust and toward cooperation and coordination is a recognition that the various agencies must educate one another about the services they provide and the limits to their services. In this instance, through the exchange of information came an increasing awareness of the complexity of the needs of victims of family violence and of the fact that victims and perpetrators were "falling through the cracks" in service delivery.

The success of each of these committees is due to the strong motivation and dedication of their members. A long term plan including common goals and objectives is essential as a motivator. In addition, recognizing and understanding the differences among the members of such committees is an important prerequisite to overcoming barriers and establishing a supportive atmosphere.

Service Planning Model

One of the more successful areas of inter-agency collaboration involving police forces is developing and applying "inter-agency protocols". These protocols provide guidelines on how to deal with sensitive subjects such as family violence, especially the sexual assault of children. They are usually produced by an interdisciplinary group and set out the expected roles and responsibilities of involved agencies. Protocols often consist of the following:

- Terms for application, or when to use the protocol -- that is, how to detect the signs of sexual abuse, the characteristics of the child victim, the incidence of sexual abuse, family and non-family factors to be considered in dealing with cases. Identification of those involved in addressing the problem, i.e. police and child protection agencies, etc.
- Statement of principles, to provide a framework for a comprehensive response to the problem. The principle should be **applicable** to each incident. They usually present established beliefs regarding the incident, victim, offender and response to child sexual abuse.
- Set of response procedures to be followed by each agency⁴.
- Specific responsibilities of each participating agency are spelled out in the protocol. Co-ordination among agencies is usually provided through the efforts of an inter-agency coordinating committee. This process offers the police an opportunity to be actively involved with other community agencies in planning, coordinating and providing a comprehensive, integrated response to such complex social problems as child abuse.

Direct Service Model

With the recent move to community policing, one of the main changes in policing is the adoption by many forces of specialized programs for crime victims. The change came about, in part, because the public recognized the important role that forces can play in responding to the needs of crime victims. Their knowledge and experience in dealing with victims of crime makes police officers a valuable resource. As well, police forces are in a good position to offer victim's services, being the first, and often only, organization with which victims come into contact.

As a result, police have started offering direct services -- mainly police-based victim assistance programs. These programs represent the increasing responsibility that the police have taken on in their attempt to become more directly involved in the community. There is clearly an active interest on the part of the police to help reduce the trauma to victims by providing them with the help needed cope with the victimization. In addition, to provide thorough victims' services, police must develop and maintain a good rapport with area community agencies -- another important aspect of community policing.

There are various types of police-based victim programs in Canada, but they are generally classified as "generalist" or "specialist". The specialist approach involves setting up separate programs whose sole function is to provide services to crime victims. The generalist approach involves establishing victim/witness services as part of the normal duties of police officers and often, too, involves changing regular police procedure in dealing with victims of crime⁵.

Specialist Approach

Crisis Intervention Model

The crisis intervention model provides immediate aid to victims in crisis situations. It grew out of police and community concern over the repetitive nature of some kinds of complaints and the difficulty of the underlying problems. The programs offer crisis intervention, short-term counselling and referrals to community agencies. The crisis intervention services are provided by trained intervenors who are on call to supply on-the-spot assistance. The clients of these programs are often victims of "persons" offenses or involved in personal or family disputes.

As an example, the Family Consulting Service was established in London, Ontario, as a result of police concern about the number of family repetitive conflict complaints handled by the police⁶. After discussing these concerns, police decided to set up a training program for in-family crisis intervention for all officers and establish an around-the-clock crisis intervention service. Although the primary objective of the

program is to provide immediate intervention in crisis situations, the service also provides the victim with information to use later and often makes referrals.

Approximately 80% of the clients of the Family Consulting Service are identified by police officer referrals. When attending a complaint, an officer decides whether the disputants could benefit from intervention. The officer then asks them if they are willing to take advantage of the services. If they are, the officer requests a trained professional consultant either over the phone or by police radio. The consultant goes to the scene of the complaint as quickly as possible. After briefing the worker, the officer is free to leave and the consultant provides crisis intervention and assessment services. This may be followed by further consultation with the client or referral to a community social service agency.

A similar program in Restigouche County, New Brunswick, called the Restigouche Family Crisis Intervenors Program, is organized and implemented quite differently⁷. Area police and officials from the county's various helping agencies organized a series of meetings to seek solutions to several problems. As a result of a series of discussions, it was determined that crisis intervention services were needed.

In Restigouche, a Board of Directors is responsible for project policy and activities. It also acts as liaison between the various agencies involved with the project, as well as between the project and the wider community. The program itself is staffed by a volunteer coordinator and volunteer intervenors. The coordinator is responsible for recruiting, training and supervising volunteers, and providing crisis intervention services to clients in sensitive or difficult cases. The volunteer intervenors respond to police officers' requests at the scene of the incidents and provide assessment and referrals to other agencies, as well as transportation to emergency shelters or hospitals.

Information Referral Model

The thrust of this model is to help victims by giving them the information they need and referring them to other agencies. Services may range from giving victims information about their case to accompanying them to court. Although counselling or crisis intervention may be provided, most of the work involves providing follow up information or referrals. It is the community agency that actually provides needed services. The program's role is to introduce the victim to the community-based service by telephone or by letter.

In Ottawa, Ontario, clients come to the attention of the Victim Service Unit staff in a number of ways⁸. Most often, officers assigned to investigate cases inform the unit staff that the victim should be called. In such cases, either the officer leaves a service card or brochure about the program with the victim, or writes on the occurrence report that

assistance from the program is required. Less frequently, victims call themselves or are referred by community agencies.

These services are generally offered from within 24 hours to two weeks of the incident. Some programs offer crisis intervention, but, because most clients are not identified until someone after the incident, and because programs are not staffed around-the-clock, this is a minimal part of the service.

Providing crime victims with information and referrals is an essential component of community policing. In providing these services, police must establish and maintain contact with community agencies in order to ensure efficient and effective referrals. In addition, providing information to crime victims is often started through public awareness and education campaigns within the community. Letting the community know about such programs demonstrates that police are taking responsibility to deal better with the community's crime problems.

To serve as an information source as well as a law enforcement agency, police personnel need to be well-informed and trained about the criminal justice system, the police force, insurance concerns, the social service community, and a host of other concerns of importance to victims.

Comprehensive Model

This model combines the features of the crisis intervention and information/referral models and is by far the most common type of victim services program offered by police forces. Clients enter the program from any number of sources. In Calgary, Alberta, clients enter the Victim/Crisis Unit through officer referrals, contacting victims directly (based on police reports) and victims requesting service by telephone.

There are two approaches to combining crisis intervention and information/referral services. Either special staff is assigned to provide one or another of the services, or all staff provide both. In Calgary, the responsibilities are split. Paid civilian staff provide crisis intervention while volunteers deliver non-crisis information. In other forces, all staff perform both functions. There are distinct advantages to each approach. While dividing the responsibilities allows for some specialization, it is often easier for the victim if the officer he or she first meets continues to provide him or her with information, referrals, etc. The decision about which approach to take depends upon the demand for either service and on the skills of staff members.

Regardless of approach taken, police involvement in meeting the immediate and long-term needs of victims through the combined services of crisis intervention and information/referral services, helps both the police and the community to establish a

better working relationship. In this way, it is a distinct move towards the community police approach to solving crime problems. Through the efforts of the combined or comprehensive approach to meeting the needs of crime victims, the police develop a better understanding not only the community's crime problems, but of the community itself.

Generalist Approach

This approach does not require the creation of a special program whose unique and sole responsibility is victim services. Instead, police improve their service to crime victims -- and overall rapport with the community -- by changing existing service or police training.

Several approaches to procedural changes have been tried. Some police forces print and distribute pamphlets to victims which contain information about available services and the criteria for eligibility. Other changes have included officer training in the handling of some offenses, such as sex offenses or domestic violence. It is now standard in many police forces to call in staff from sexual or wife assault centres to assist on calls. Officers have also been trained in questioning techniques which help the victim to understand the crime and his or her own victimization. These procedures have altered many police officers' thinking about victims and their needs, resulting in better service to crime victims.

Crime Prevention Strategies

Police work through the years has always involved some crime prevention -that is, anticipating a crime before it happens and trying to stop it. In the past, crime prevention has meant arresting criminals liable to commit crimes again, warning transgressors to change their ways, and patrolling high crime areas.

With community policing, crime prevention takes on a broader meaning and becomes a larger part of a police officer's job. Today, it means working with young people so that they are not in conflict with the justice system. It also means preventing family violence. There are other examples, as we shall see presently.

Successful crime prevention programs usually target specific needs of the community. The Canadian experience in crime prevention has included a major role for law enforcement and corrections in keeping offenders from committing more crimes. It has included various efforts: designing new housing developments in such a way as to reduce opportunities for crime (through good lighting, lack of dark alleys, etc.); "target hardening", or making targets hard to rob, encouraging citizens to buy good locks for

their houses; and "opportunity reduction" such as starting neighbourhood watch programs. More recently, crime prevention has been expanded to include programs which improve social, personal, and family circumstances, thereby removing some of the reasons which make young people turn to crime. This section of the manual addresses some of these strategies as they relate to community policing.

1. Crime Prevention Through Social Development

Why do people turn to crime? Increasingly, research is showing how some young persons may develop into persistent offenders. This is important information, because a small number of chronic offenders is responsible for a large number of offenses. In poor areas, as few as 7% of the boys may account for more than 50% of the offenses. These chronic delinquents usually begin their criminal behaviour earlier than others and proceed to commit a wide range of criminal offenses.

The pattern of delinquency develops over time. Mishandling by parents, inconsistent parenting, family discord, family crime, failure in school and poverty all make it more likely that a child will become delinquent in the future. Educational failure can result in low self-esteem, leading to emotional problems and antagonism towards school. Antagonism can lead for example, to vandalism, which provides these young people with more stimulating rewards than those in school. Some researchers maintain that an unstable job record can lead to continued involvement in crime. Finally, it is argued that concentrated public housing increases the likelihood that youth, already prone to delinquency, will socialize with other criminals, thereby amplifying the behaviour. Economic deprivation and delinquent friends in teen years can further influence teen delinquency. Most chronic offenders are males who hit their peak in committing offenses during their teen years.

This understanding of the factors which lead to criminal behaviour has prompted many researchers to argue that social programs should be included in crime prevention programs. This reliance on social intervention -- often called "crime prevention through social development" -- is increasingly recognized as an essential element in a comprehensive crime prevention strategy. The range of social interventions often include:

- Programs to help disadvantaged families develop good parenting skills; respite care (child care from time to time to give parents a break); parenting support and preventative programs for parents at risk of abusing or neglecting their children.
- Special programs in the schools. Early identification of children with behavioural problems; remedial support programs for economically and socially disadvantaged children; curricula focusing on life skills such as parenting, sexual behaviour, etc.

- Social housing integrated in regular housing developments and existing neighbourhoods. Social housing tenants need to be involved in determining the affairs of housing projects. Recreation and support services should be available and accessible to them.
- Employment opportunities and training for single mothers and disadvantaged youth.

These are some of the social interventions proposed as a means of getting at the causes of criminal behaviour. Obviously, most of these activities are the responsibility of a community's social agencies. Thus, while the police are involved in identifying the problem, social agencies are the ones responsible for carrying out programs to correct the situation.

A variety of approaches are being used across Canada to co-ordinate community-based social programs targeted at families and individuals who are "at risk". Some are organizational arrangements to plan and co-ordinate local programs. Others co-ordinate "front line" services. Still others deal with setting up new targeted social program strategies.

1.1. Coordinating Local Planning and Program Development

Most Canadian municipalities concerned with coordinating crime prevention have traditionally designated this responsibility to the police, an appropriate committee of the municipal council, or a Crime Prevention Council, usually organized as an advisory body to the local Council. These organizations generally do not have the authority to influence local programs.

One community located in northern British Columbia has developed an organization which has considerable authority. The plan calls for a Board, chaired by the Mayor and involving senior community program representatives. This Board addresses the local range of crime prevention and enforcement initiatives required to keep the community safe.

The Board is expected to act in a non-adversarial manner -- determining, implementing, redesigning and coordinating social programs where appropriate. The Board introduces specific means (task forces, community consultation, etc.), to deal with particular problems such as youth vandalism and the relations between native persons and the criminal justice system. Specific responsibilities of these groups are expected to include:

- determining the needs of the community in dealing with crime patterns as well as with criminal behaviour.
- Developing comprehensive crime prevention strategies including law enforcement, opportunity reduction, social development and correctional programs, suited to the community.
- Calling on the organizations represented on the Board and others in the community to work on these strategies. This will encourage collaborative inter-agency support.
- The Board tries to avoid creating disharmony, assessing the details of the particular programs of its member organizations, monitoring a community agency's activities or resolving conflicts.

There are a number of reasons why this model, if successful, may be worth considering in other Canadian communities:

- It has the full support of local police authorities, partly because the model grants members (including the police) authority for the services they provide.
- The Board ensures that the range of major organizations responsible for criminal justice and social development services are represented on it and are committed to collaborative action. This ensures that comprehensive crime prevention strategies including, where appropriate, social programs, are implemented.
- The police consider the Board an appropriate community policing response because (1) it allows the community to assist in problem solving and (2) encourages community participation and support to the police in controlling and preventing crime.
- The concept is considered an innovative way of operating a community advisory committee.
- The model offers considerable opportunity for the police to develop collaborative commitment of the major community agencies in addressing crime. In participating as a partner, the police can avoid the problems which may arise if they are considered as "leading" such an initiative. Finally, this approach allows the police to mobilize various community policing strategies, particularly those encouraging collaboration with agencies and organizations.

1.2. Expanding the Responsibilities of Crime Prevention Councils

As we have noted, there are many community-based crime prevention councils in Canada. These bodies usually comprise appointed community members including representatives from the police forces, and are established by municipalities to take on a number of responsibilities.

Several of these councils are involved in addressing the social causes of crime in their communities. One community council has recently decided to encourage other community social agencies to recognize the causes of crime and how preventing crime is linked with their program responsibilities. The council hopes thereafter to collaborate with agencies to pursue the problem-solving planning process. Among the activities which the council intends to pursue are:

- Acquainting social agencies through publications with the council, its roles and responsibilities, its interest in social development programs as a component of crime prevention, and its commitment to collaborative problem-solving with community agencies.
- Consulting with selected social and planning organizations to become familiar with their work, to introduce the council, and to encourage collaboration.
- Inviting community agencies to a session on the value of collaborative planning using urban planning, social trends and police data.

This organization now intends to:

- Ensure that social development agencies are provided regularly with information about crime for planning purposes.
- Provide opportunities for agencies to meet and develop a more collective inter-agency commitment to community crime prevention.
- Determine ways agencies can participate in addressing specific issues of concern to the Council, such as youth drug use.

The work of this community council could also apply to other crime prevention councils. The involvement of police in the council is key to developing a community policing strategy. First, the police officer on the council is also responsible for developing the local community police program. Second, the police have already begun to share information and collaborate with the community through this process. Third, the council is involved in advising the municipality and police force on its community policing program.

1.3. Inter-agency Planning Collaboration

Many communities setting up a comprehensive crime prevention strategy are including crime prevention through social development in the mandate and work of their inter-agency networks which would include property concerns, addiction, families at risk, and support for young persons in conflict with the law. The way in which inter-agency networks incorporate this perspective varies. Some inter-agency networks have held community planning meetings with senior agency and network personnel. Some are involved in assessing whether crime prevention through social development should be part of the responsibilities of community inter-agency groups. Others are considering ways to nurture the inter-agency network commitment to crime prevention through social development through regular newsletters, common planning meetings or consultative support.

1.4. "Front Line" Agency Collaboration

Staff of front-line agencies often collaborate in offering services for individuals, families and neighbourhoods. This is particularly true when several organizations -- police, schools, child welfare authorities, public health, recreation and others -- are all located in the same neighbourhood and all have considerable flexibility in fulfilling their responsibilities. Such inter-agency involvement can be initiated by an agency, or it can be the result of sharing a common facility, such as a neighbourhood store front operation, police mini-station, or multi-service centre. These often informal collaborative exchanges can be very effective in identifying the social conditions, and difficulties with individuals, families and groups. They can also develop well-organized strategies to deal with these problems.

2. Opportunity Reduction

Many of the crime prevention programs involving opportunity reduction reflect the philosophy of ensuring the active participation of community organizations. Most programs rely on the extensive use of volunteers. Their success, in part, depends on how carefully the program takes into account the neighbourhoods affected.

Such crime prevention programs are often key ingredients in the various forms of community policing in Canada. One successful effort is under way in Victoria.

Five community police stations were established in Victoria in order to accomplish several objectives, including involving members of the community in assuming some responsibility for crime prevention. Establishing the stations proved an important base

from which to promote other community programs such as block watch, school, and local inter-agency programs.

Officers in the stations are required to spend at least 20% of their time on block watch and another 20% or more on programs in the schools. Time is also spent recruiting, training and supervising volunteers and other activities geared towards bringing the officer into more contact with the community. The officers in the stations are beginning to organize block watch on a systematic basis.

The Victoria program has also developed volunteer initiatives in the specific neighbourhoods they serve. A group of seniors have joined together and volunteered to set up a "buddy" system in which each senior is called every morning by a neighbour. This process not only diminishes the fear of crime, but also provides useful social interaction and contact.

Community police also use various programs to help citizens protect themselves, their belongings, or their property. Many of these programs aim to make the potential crime target less accessible to the criminal. Such measures, often termed "target hardening," are also basic elements in a crime prevention strategy.

One of the most widely-used crime prevention program is property marking or "Operation Identification." This program involves engraving or otherwise marking transportable property that is often stolen (televisions, stereos, etc.). In addition to marking their property, participants receive warning decals which alert the burglar to the fact that items have been marked for police identification. The idea behind the program is that burglars will perceive a greater risk of arrest and conviction if they are caught with marked rather than unmarked items; marked items will be more difficult to sell, therefore less desirable as targets; once the goods are recovered, they can be more easily identified and returned. Marking can help establish that goods are stolen, increasing the likelihood of successful prosecution.

A recent "opportunity reduction" effort using building standards to reduce burglary has proved successful in Hamilton, Ontario. The effort, led by the regional police service, was to encourage builders to take into account security in their building standards. Security was incorporated into actual construction of new homes, thereby making them more burglar-resistant. The initiative involved the collaborative efforts of the police, city planning department, local builders and housing authorities. Compliance with the building standards is clearly visible, as a "Shield of Confidence" certificate is affixed to each new home. The program has already demonstrated considerable success.

There is a clear opportunity to deal with crime prevention during the development of a community's "official plan". This process, which is under the direction of the provinces and is managed by a municipality's planning force, has usually been mainly concerned

with land use. Increasingly, the process of developing the plan is becoming a participatory one in which social, economic and environmental interests are addressed. Plans are now often based on ideas to improve the quality of life: peace, security, income, social justice and so on. Official plans often take into account neighbourhood development plans. Community policing concerns can often be recognized in the formulation of such plans, for example:

- Are the social housing needs, including "special needs housing" such as halfway houses or homes for battered women, adequately addressed? Is such housing well integrated in the community?
- Is the physical environment designed to accommodate and support the "people" qualities of healthy neighbourhoods?
- Does the physical design help prevent crime by providing safe streets, walkways, transit systems and parking areas?

Police forces are often consulted in the development of official plans. There are also opportunities for you as community police practitioners to encourage other agencies concerned with community-wide as well as neighbourhood interests to participate in the creation or renewal of your community's official plan.

Section 4:

Community-Based Programs

While not specifically concerned with crime, a number of other community programs are springing up across Canada of interest to the police. These programs stem from the same philosophy as community policing: that communities must control their own well-being. Here are some of the trends leading to these new programs:

- A growing appreciation that social policies, safety and security and human services are interrelated and tied into economic and environmental concerns.
- A recognition that a healthy environment, physical health, the wellbeing of local economies and social well-being are intimately connected.
- A realization that all elements in a community -- including social agencies, local governments, churches, private businesses, and citizen groups -- should be involved in planning and carrying out local action.
- A new commitment to community consultation and participation in all programs affecting the community.

These trends are manifested in a variety of approaches three of which we will outline here for your information. Many communities are taking an interest in "sustainable development," which means economic growth that is coupled with an awareness of the environment. Sustainable development would include setting up a paper recycling business or making sure that a new company will not pollute the environment. Other communities are expressing an interest in local economic initiative (LEI), also known as community economic development (CED). Both terms mean setting up new community businesses -- in cooperation with agencies, local governments and so on -- that will provide meaningful work and contribute to the community in some way. Such initiatives foster cooperative self-reliance based on maximum community participation in those processes affecting people's lives. Social programs affecting income security, health, employment, education and personal security are incorporated in this integrated approach.

Perhaps the most relevant and quickly spreading community-based trend across Canada is the establishment of "healthy community projects." A quick glance shows that this trend will be important to community police collaborating with social agencies.

Healthy Communities

Healthy community projects are among the more interesting community planning exercises and involve municipal governments collaborating with urban planners, doctors and nurses, police, recreation organizers, social services, housing authorities and others to collaborate in achieving a healthy community.

"Health", in this context, is a much broader term than what we normally understand. The concept takes into account much of what people consider to be "healthy" aspects of a community, including a clean and pleasing environment, adequate housing and food for all, good working conditions and so on. Such projects usually incorporate:

- The political commitment of the municipal government to a healthy community approach.
- A specific municipal policy to develop a healthier community. This can include conducting research and planning, or development of an action or implementation plan.
- The research, planning and action are often conducted by inter-agency committees. They usually incorporate interdisciplinary, public and private cooperation and community participation.

How are healthy community projects relevant to community police?

The projects can be useful in a variety of ways:

The range of subjects addressed in many healthy community projects can help in community policing problem-solving. Some projects deal with concerns which may also affect patterns of criminal behaviour, such as the socio-demographic profile of a low income group. Projects may also consider issues of direct relevance to community policing, such as youth at risk, vandalism, urban safety, crime prevention and family violence. In most instances, multiple action plans are introduced to address the concerns. The process usually resembles the problem-solving approach employed in community policing.

In Toronto, citizens involved in the project have determined that a healthy community should be safe, peaceful and non-violent. To them, achieving a health community requires dealing with crime and violence. After extensive research and community consultations, project organizers determined that a lot could be done to protect the safety of the community, especially women. Consequently, Toronto is now embarking on a massive effort to limit the opportunities for public

violence against women and hence, reduce women's fear of violence. The strategy is based on the understanding that:

- One-third to one-half of rapes occur in urban public space.
- Public violence against women refers not only to acts which end up in police statistics but also to more subtle and often unreported acts such as sexual harassment.
- Inequality, poverty and alienation can create violence and further fear in women.

The Toronto strategy addresses violence against women in a variety of ways including:

- Urban planning and design which can limit crime opportunities; developing land use policies which promote familiarity in neighbourhoods, ensuring that public areas are adequately lighted; developing landscaping policies which allow reasonable visibility, establishing higher standards for the internal security of apartment and condominium buildings. Such measures can be addressed by municipal council through its official plans and planning departments.
- Pursuing relevant community crime prevention strategies, such as refocusing neighbourhood watch programs to include watching out for neighbours' personal safety, conducting safety inventories of neighbourhoods and undertaking assault prevention education.
- Developing safer public transit policies and practices, including audits of sites where sexual assaults have occurred, ensuring adequate lighting and establishing safe shelters.
- Developing an accountable, representative and responsible police force through measures such as hiring more women, ensuring that women are informed of areas where sexual assaults have occurred or of repeat offenders, ensuring police are more visible in the community and so on.

Local Economic Initiative

Another trend relevant to community policing is local economic initiative (LEI), described above. In LEI, new businesses established in the community usually address several social, environmental and economic objectives. This approach seems to work best when it is run by an organized group and involves helping disadvantaged citizens, such as single mothers. Projects are usually funded by governments and through their own cash flow. Projects are varied:

- A group of social housing tenants have organized a business for caretaking and maintenance of special housing developments. The group hopes to provide similar services to commercial operations.
- Addressing a need for employment training, one community development association started a restaurant which was, in part, intended to offer training to disadvantaged youth.

LEI's are usually community-based and non-profit, representing various local neighbourhood interests. They are generally designed to provide the social support required by their staff, such as day care, on-the-job training, counselling, etc. A LEI can be of value to community policing because they provide a link with the people from the neighbourhood (especially valuable when the residents are from a depressed area) who are committed to improving the quality of life of individuals as well as the neighbourhood. Where such an organization already exists, it is a natural choice to participate in all aspects of the problem-solving process.

Local Social Planning

Many communities have social planning or social action initiatives which can be relevant in addressing the interests of community policing. The intent and methodology of social planning can differ from one community to another.

Organizations responsible for community planning and program coordination (social planning councils, health councils and United Ways, etc.), often start community consultations to determine citizens' views of the nature of social problems, their local priority, ways to address them, and which organizations are expected to respond. These consultations are used to determine which local social concerns will receive attention and support. They can also offer opportunities for the police to participate actively, starting the process of inter-agency collaboration.

Local social planning can also be started by self-help or citizen groups and is usually focused on the neighbourhood. It is often more concerned with marshalling community understanding and participation in dealing with its social issues and problems. This process often addresses the specific roles and responsibilities which the community expects agencies -- including the police -- to assume. It can also be very constructive in defining a neighbourhood's perception of social issues and their solutions and in establishing the credibility and capability of agencies to address the neighbourhood situation. This type of neighbourhood effort, becoming more popular across Canada, often involves social housing tenants, visible minority groups, welfare recipients and others.

In summary, we have seen several social processes which can exist in the community. Each can be of value in demonstrating a community's view of its own needs, problems and solutions. They can also provide opportunities for you to set collaborative arrangements with both established organizations and self-help groups.

Conclusion

This manual is intended to provide police officers with information and suggestions on how to determine which community agencies may be relevant to realizing community policing goals. It demonstrates how to identify community agencies and examines the ways in which they are organized, some of which examines a number of ways in which may apply to your community. It considers key illustrations of various police services and interagency collaboration models involving police in Canada.

It is important to remember, after reading through this manual, that every community is distinctive. Your community relations with agencies, the problems you are addressing, the way in which you organize your efforts and the way you achieve your community policing goals are entirely your own. In the final analysis, which opportunities are available to you, which agencies you work with, and which roles you play in any inter-agency arrangement will be determined by you, in collaboration with your police colleagues and relevant community agencies.

Following are some questions which, when answered, may assist you in getting started.

- *1. How are police perceived by local agency and community representatives?*

Make an effort to determine how the police force perceived by agency representatives and what are police commitments in the neighbourhood. Has the force collaborated with agencies in the past? On what issues and with what success? Has the force been successful in its relationships with community groups which are sensitive to police intervention, such as visible minorities, native persons, women's organizations, social housing tenant groups and others? This information is important when determining strategies which are realistic and feasible in establishing trust in inter-agency relationships.

- *2. What are the opportunities for effective inter-agency collaboration?*

Before developing a community policing program, you need to assess your community or neighbourhood situation. The involvement of other agencies in the various stages of the problem-solving process, as discussed in Section 2, should be explored. Efforts should be taken to determine which agencies, inter-agency mechanisms and community development processes are already under way in the community. Further, you need to determine which agencies are addressing the concerns which you believe require attention. To what extent are you prepared to involve other agencies? Will they advise you in your planning? Are they to be equal partners in all aspects of the problem-solving process? Or should other agencies assume the primary responsibility for specific community problems, with the police taking only a minor role? Determining what

approach is feasible and ensuring that the community has a real say in establishing your roles and responsibilities is important in developing successful community participation.

3. How can inter-agency collaboration be effective?

Much of the material in this manual offers suggestions for successful collaboration with community agencies. It explores means for ensuring that others understand your objectives and for determining how much you and your police force can alter traditional practice in dealing with law enforcement concerns.

Some of the issues you must recognize are the resources you can provide and how much public education or how many public advisory initiatives you can conduct to accomplish local goals. These issues must be continually reassessed and your position on them clearly communicated both within your force and with appropriate agency representatives. It is essential that other organizations and agencies appreciate your situation, intentions, and your perception of the roles and responsibilities of the police and other agencies. While agency representatives can usually accept the fact that other agencies must limit their commitment or involvement in joint agency efforts, most do not appreciate being undermined.

Working in the community with its citizens and agencies is an essential element in practising successful community policing. While the challenges involved in, forming partnerships with other agencies and depending on them are considerable, the overall results are well worth the effort.

APPENDIX I:

GLOSSARY OF SELECTED SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT TERMS

Social Development

In this manual social development refers to programs intended to improve the quality of life through meeting social needs and these are provided by the public, private and voluntary sectors. They include social services, health, income security, education, social housing and employment preparation programs.

Education Services

Education services are usually provided with under the leadership and direction of local school authorities (school boards). Schools continue to be primarily concerned with the imparting of learning skills and knowledge. However, many school systems are also providing individualized enrichment programs for special needs students, and social and psychological support for disadvantaged children and youth.

Social Services

These services refer to a range of personal services for individuals with problems. Such services can include counselling, daycare, homemakers' services, etc. These services are often intended to help families and young persons who are at risk or who are dealing with emotional and social problems.

Social Housing

Social housing usually refers to publicly-subsidized housing provided through various government-sponsored tax-based subsidies and loans intended for those with limited incomes. Some housing developments include various support services to parents, youth and children. Social housing is provided by public authorities or voluntary organizations.

Income Security Programs

These programs provide direct financial support to individuals and families whose other sources of income are cut off. Eligibility criteria and amounts of money available vary from program to program. Programs sometimes include access to personal social services, such as counselling. Income security programs are increasingly being coordinated with employment preparation programs.

Employment Preparation Programs

There are a variety of programs designed to help those having difficulty finding or keeping meaningful employment, including single parents and disadvantaged youth. Services include job preparation skills, job training, placement and job creation.

Health Care

Community health programs often focus on identifying difficulties, preventing illness and promoting health. Increasingly, these programs use a comprehensive social health approach to assist disadvantaged or multi-problem families.

APPENDIX II:

COURSE OUTLINE

A course in working with **community agencies** should involve an intense one and a half day of sessions. Ideally, it should be one element of a more complete program on community policing. It should draw on materials and examples which are suited to the local or regional situations where the trainees are employed. Representatives of community agencies should be invited to function as resources and lecturers.

COURSE CONTENT

1. Introduction to community policing and working with community agencies.
This section should include consideration of:
 - the philosophy underlying community policing; the various organizational models used in organizing a community policing program; the rationale for partnerships between police and the community; both positive and negative experiences of community efforts in working with community agencies.
 - The specific content for this session should be determined on the basis of the trainees' experience with community policing. This element of the course should take the form of a half-day session.
2. Introduction to community agencies and community development processes
This section should include:
 - consideration of the various types of community agencies involved in physical planning and in the planning, coordination and provision of social services, and how they are organized. This should include the terms used to describe agencies (social services, social housing, etc.), and the meaning of various functions undertaken by agencies (program planning, service planning, program coordination, etc.)
 - consideration of the various inter-agency mechanisms to address community problems.

- consideration of the emerging community development processes which can be of interest to community policing, such as the healthy
- communities projects, local economic initiative, social development initiatives. and others.

Again, the specific content of this session should be relevant to the communities of the trainees. Experts should be called upon as resources and appropriate background material, such as community service directories, used as aids. This element of the course will require at least a day session.

3. Police involvement with community agencies

This section should focus on the ways and means of getting involved with agencies. This section should include consideration of:

- the steps involved in the problem-solving process employed in community policing, including problem identification, analysis to determine appropriate responses and evaluation of the process. The value of involving various community agencies in each stage of the process (as discussed in Section 2 of this manual) should be explored.
- assessing the extent to which a police force can effectively become involved with other community agencies in addressing community concerns. This assessment should include examining the attitude of the force towards real participation, the value of community organizations and agencies, and the responsibilities of the police and the role they should assume in community problem-solving. The views and perceptions of police officers, as they affect the development of effective inter-agency cooperation and collaboration, should be examined.

The last element of the session should be an opportunity to develop actual plans for a community policing program. This element will require at the most one half day.

Endnotes

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Shaping the Future

CRIME AND INCIDENT ANALYSIS



Ministry of the
Solicitor General and
Correctional Services

Ontario

Crime and Incident Analysis for Community Policing

Ministry of the Solicitor General
and Correctional Services of Ontario
and
Ministry of the Solicitor General
of Canada

Dr. Rick Linden
University of Manitoba

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Preface

Crime and Incident Analysis for Community Policing was prepared under contract for the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada by Dr. Rick Linden of the Department of Sociology, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

This report is part of a series of manuals on community policing produced jointly by the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario and the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada. The objective of the series is to provide information on the implementation of community policing, focusing on planning, management processes, training and operational strategies. These reports are designed for use by all members of the police services, police services boards, community groups, students of policing/criminology, educational facilities, police college instructors, and government officials.

Barry Leighton & Marsha Mitzak
Series Editors

NOTE: *The views expressed in this report are those of the author and not necessarily those of the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario or the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada.*

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Table of Contents

SECTION 1: THE NEED FOR CRIME ANALYSIS	7
SECTION 2: A FRAMEWORK FOR PROBLEM-ORIENTED POLICING	3
SECTION 3: SOURCES OF INFORMATION	8
SECTION 4: SETTING PRIORITIES	10
SECTION 5: FORMULATING A PROBLEM STATEMENT	13
SECTION 6: BASIC TECHNIQUES OF CRIME ANALYSIS	17
SECTION 7: PATTERN IDENTIFICATION	19
SECTION 8: THE CRIME MATRIX	24
SECTION 9: FUTURE TRENDS IN CRIME ANALYSIS	36
CONCLUSION.	44
ENDNOTES	
BIBLIOGRAPHY	

Section 1:

The Need for Crime Analysis

Although there is an abundance of data available to the police, most of it is used only in the investigation and prosecution of individual cases. Such information can be put to a much broader use, however, in defining patterns and trends. This process, known as crime analysis, leads to better use of resources and in the long run, better service delivery. Targeting activities where they are most needed in a directed, systematic fashion can enable the police to be more effective. This process also leads to a problem-oriented focus which is directed toward crime prevention and increased community involvement with the police.

Crime analysis has many different uses and benefits. Among these are¹:

- * To enhance preventive patrol efforts by identifying persistent or unique crime problem areas
- * To achieve a more effective deployment of existing patrol resources through the early identification of crime patterns and trends
- * To provide information for the development of specific patrol strategies and tactics
- * To assist in the investigative process by correlating and communicating crime occurrences with suspects, suspect vehicles, and unique MO characteristics
- * To increase the number of cases cleared through arrest
- * To provide a quantitative means for measuring the effectiveness of manpower resources in relationship to calls for service demands and crime suppression requirements
- * To furnish trend data for overall planning and crime targeting needs
- * To provide a communication link in disseminating intelligence information between patrol, investigators, district stations, and force operations
- * To assist in the preparation of cases for court
- * To provide sufficient information on problems to facilitate the involvement of the community in prevention activities.

This manual is intended to assist forces in implementing crime analysis by describing how to collect, analyze and use the relevant information. Examples will be provided from forces which have successfully used crime analysis. In order to show how to make use of the information provided by crime analysis, we will first place it in its context of problem-oriented policing.

Section 2:

A Framework for Problem-Oriented Policing

Traditionally, policing has operated in a reactive style, which means that for every call received a car is dispatched. The volume of calls for service, however, has increased to the point where there may be little time for anything other than this reactive work. This problem has been illustrated by the London Metropolitan Police description of the reactive cycle (see Figure 1, next page).

In order to get out of this seemingly endless process, the police must become more **proactive** by applying a problem solving approach to their work. This process involves an analysis of incidents with the intention of ensuring that they can be stopped. For example, in the case of an outbreak of smallpox, the medical community would proactively study the problem and take action, such as inoculation of travellers to certain parts of the world, to prevent any further cases from occurring. In policing, crime analysis is the key to instituting a proactive problem-oriented approach to crime.

Some of this work will be familiar in the context of reactive policing. The police have often grouped incidents in order to apprehend a suspect who is responsible for a number of offenses and have increased patrols in areas where large numbers of crimes have been occurring. Problem-oriented policing expands this process by ensuring that the work is done routinely and systematically and is much broader in scope than traditional police work.

Over the past two decades, many new methods have been developed for reducing crime. These range from police deployment strategies to community-based programs, contemporary investigation techniques and environmental design. To be effective, these programs must be directed where they will do the most good.

Focusing enforcement and prevention efforts on carefully selected targets has several positive consequences. First, limited resources, both human and financial, can be directed towards the most serious problem. Second, if programs are systematically planned and targeted, the activities of different sections of the police force and/or different agencies can be coordinated. Third, it is easier to assess the results when activities are focused on properly defined problems. This provides information about the success of different strategies or programs and adds a degree of accountability to the process.

The process of analyzing crime problems, developing enforcement or prevention strategies based on this analysis, and evaluating the results is known as problem-oriented policing. To be effective, these programs must be directed where they will do the most good. Doing this requires crime analysis to identify problems, match solutions to those

INCREASES

LEVEL OF POLICE
RESOURCES
REACTING TO
PROBLEMS

DECREASES

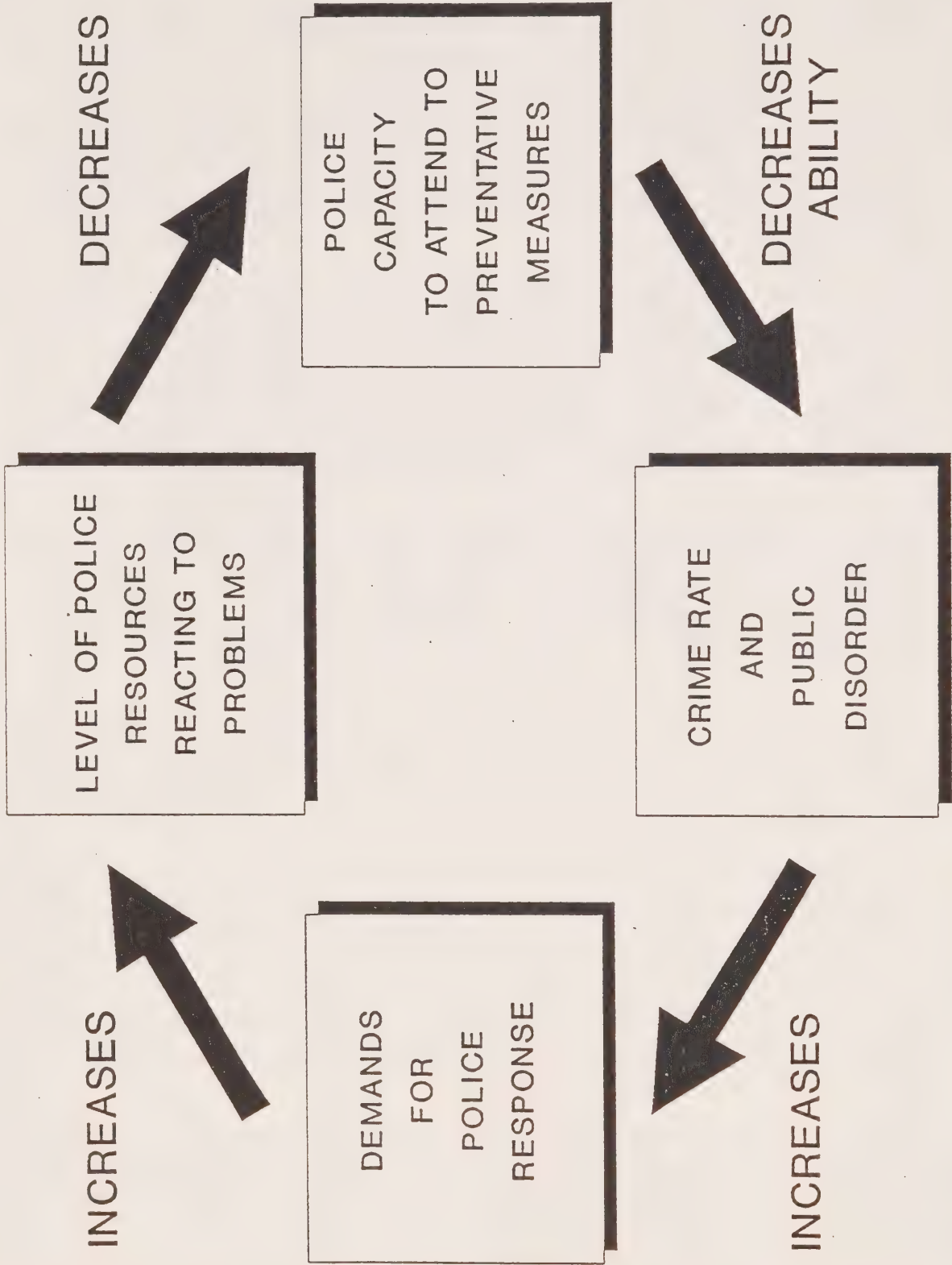
DEMANDS
FOR
POLICE
RESPONSE

POLICE
CAPACITY
TO ATTEND TO
PREVENTATIVE
MEASURES

INCREASES

CRIME RATE
AND
PUBLIC
DISORDER

DECREASES
ABILITY



problems, and evaluate the results. A planning and implementation model which can be used to systematically implement this approach is shown in Figure 2. In order to depict the role played by crime analysis, we will first discuss each of the components in the planning model, then look at the components which specifically involve crime analysis.

Problem Definition

This is the research stage. Crime statistics and consultation with the community are used to define crime problems in their community context, establish priorities, and describe the key aspects of these priority problems through detailed crime analysis. The result is a precise statement of the problem(s) to be addressed. In this stage crime analysis is used twice. First, a broad range of crime problems are described in sufficient detail that an assessment of their seriousness can be carried out. Second, once priority problems have been identified, a very detailed analysis is carried out in order to obtain as much information as possible about these problems.

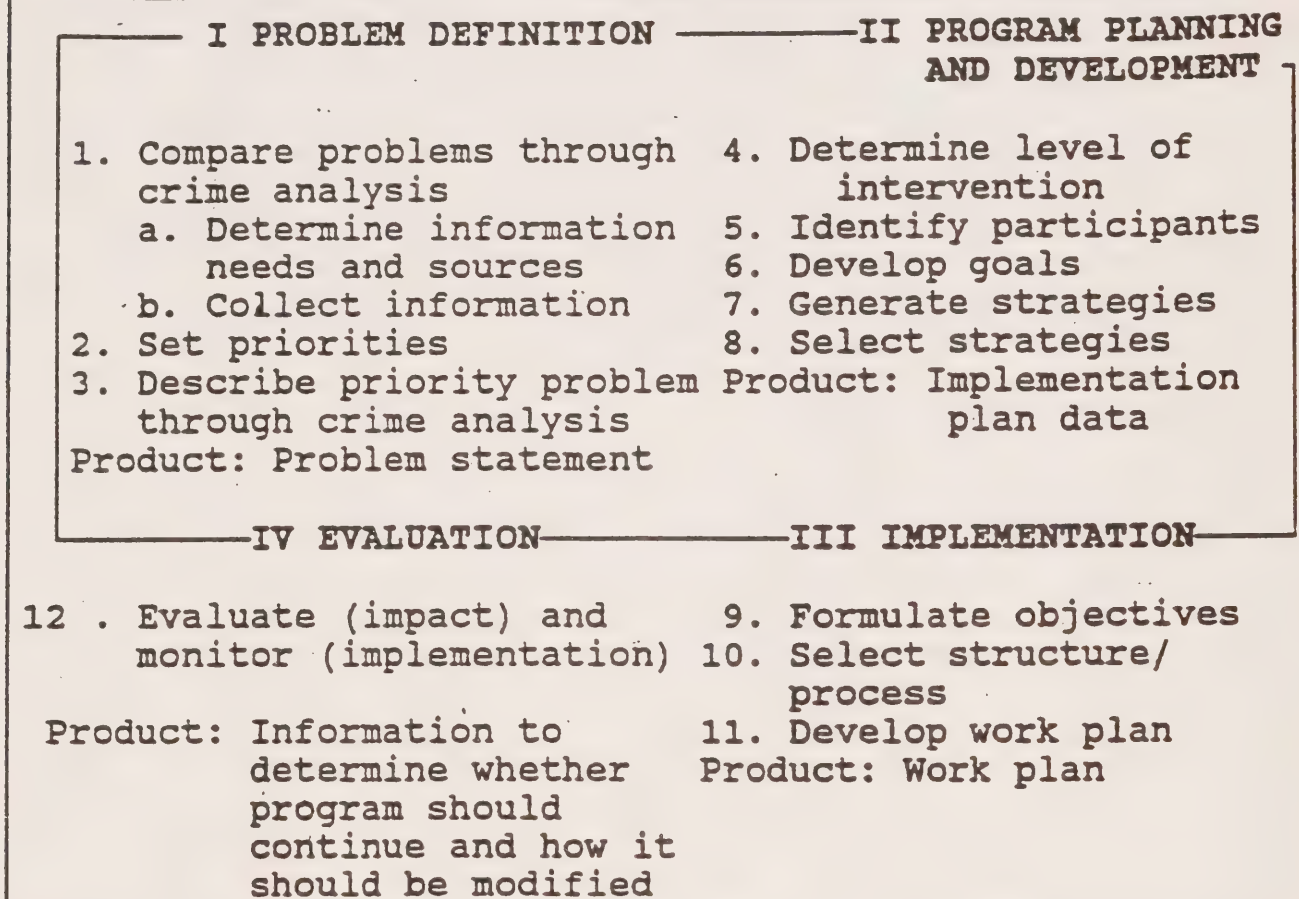
Program Planning and Development

This is the strategic planning phase. The practitioner develops a set of approaches most likely to be successful in addressing the problem as defined, including selecting potential participants, setting goals, establishing indicators of success, and choosing between alternative strategies. The product of this phase is the overall strategy to be used. The selection of strategies must be a creative exercise as there are many possibilities. A program might involve any or all of four major components: law enforcement (i.e. directed patrol, surveillance); community participation (i.e. Block Watch, Operation Identification, public education through the media); physical or environmental (i.e. street lighting, target hardening) and administrative or legal (i.e. city ordinances, special prosecutors for target crimes). It is important that solutions not be selected mechanically, but rather should be tailored to the specific problem which is being addressed.

Implementation

This is the action phase. Specific objectives are established, roles determined, necessary support obtained from inside and outside the force, and a work plan developed. The police are now learning to involve other segments of the community including business, social agencies, neighbourhood groups, and individual citizens in implementing prevention programs.

FIGURE 2: Community Crime Prevention Planning Model



Evaluation

This is the assessment stage. On the completion of each component of the program strategy, there should be process and impact evaluations using success indicators and performance measures defined in the planning phase and monitored during the implementation phase. An evaluation will show whether conditions have changed as a result of the program and introduce an element of accountability. The reasons for the success or failure of part or all of a program, its efficiency compared with other activities, and any intended or unintended side effects can be demonstrated. In some cases the cost-effectiveness of a program can be determined. The success or failure of the initial strategy will help to determine the approach to be used in subsequent attempts to resolve the same or similar problems.

This planning and implementation process depends on crime analysis as it is the basis of both the problem identification and evaluation phases. The success of problem-oriented policing depends on the collection and analysis of quality data.

The reader should note that crime analysis can involve very sophisticated statistical techniques. This manual will begin at a very simple level in order to show the logic of the approach. If it is to be useful, the principles, and value of crime analysis must be communicated to all members of the force - not just those who have a high level of understanding and an interest in computers. Once the logic of crime analysis is understood, it is relatively simple to understand and to use the results of more sophisticated analysis, though specialists may carry out the work.

Section 3:

Sources of Information

The first step in problem-oriented policing is to identify and define the problem. This requires the officer to first define the geographical/community boundaries of the area of concern.

The next step is to collect and analyze as much information as is available concerning these locations. The officer will then use this information to identify problems and target resources on the problems, based on their priority for the community and their potential for reduction or solution. When the research and problem selection phases are complete, a focused and detailed description of the priority problems will assist the officer in developing an enforcement or prevention program targeted to these crimes.

What sources of information are available to assist the officer/ analyst in this process? In the initial phase in which problems are identified, two major sources of information are typically used. The first is police data.

In the past, however, these data have not been useful for analysis, since statistics did not show the geographic distribution of crime or the way it occurred at the neighbourhood level. Also, the data were not current and typically was compiled quarterly or annually. Knowing that over the past three months burglaries have increased by 15 percent over an area populated by 125,000 people is of some use, but is not nearly specific enough to target programs on manageable areas. In addition, not enough detail was usually available to be useful in defining specific crime problems. While it was possible to go through files manually to narrow down areas and obtain more detailed information, this was very costly and time-consuming. Now that most large forces have computerized record systems, however, the potential for analysis has become much greater. Information can be made available very quickly, the use of addresses which are coded by block, atom, or geo-code defines very small areas, and a great deal of information is available about offense, offender, and victim.

Within the **police force**, many different sources of information are available. Among these are: offense/incident reports; follow-up reports; arrest reports; field interview reports; probation/parole or released inmate reports; stolen/recovered vehicle reports; warrant files; juvenile contact files; accident reports and so on.

The other major source of information is the **community**. There are several reasons why official crime statistics may not contain all the information needed to define a community's problems. First, victimization surveys have shown that less than half of all crimes are ever reported to the police. In addition, some crimes are more likely to be reported than others. Similarly, different community groups may be more or less likely to report. For example, the likelihood of one ethnic, cultural, or age group may be more

likely to report crime than another. Information from the community may be obtained from a number of sources. The most systematic is the community survey in which a sample of community members are asked about their victimization and level of fear. Pierre Tremblay (1990) has suggested studying fear of crime by giving community residents a map of the area and asking them to indicate areas where they feel safe and unsafe. The resulting "map of fear" can be very useful in planning programs and assessing the results.

Information can also be obtained from interviews with key people in the community, through community meetings, or through public hearings and task forces. Statistical data about criminal activity which has not been reported to the police may also be available from community sources. For example, records of vandalism may be kept by local housing authorities or school boards and records of shoplifting may be kept by stores. Finally, information about patterns of crime may be obtained from the offenders themselves. A number of studies have been done using offender interviews.

Section 4:

Setting Priorities

The information gained from this initial stage of data collection and analysis is used to set priorities. The officer must decide which crime and fear problems and which community area or location to target. Moreover, from all the available data, the officer must search for patterns which suggest that a crime can be solved. Crime which appears to be randomly distributed geographically or over time is very difficult to deal with. However, when crime occurrences cluster, the crime analyst may be able to suggest solutions.

Once crime patterns have been identified, the different offenses are compared in order to set priorities. While many different criteria could be used, Figure 3 shows several which have been found to be useful. Ideally, of course, all crimes would receive equal attention. Resources, however, are rarely sufficient to devote a major effort to all of the community's crime problems so choices must be made.

It might be helpful to briefly discuss each of the terms used in Figure 3.

- * Magnitude - describes the extent of crime. While absolute numbers of offenses may be used, it is more common to use crime rates. Absolute numbers will be misleading because different areas have different population bases. Two areas may have a similar number of reports for a particular offense, but if one has three times the population, the crime problem is much more severe in one area than in the other.

Crime rates, however, cannot be relied on for certain offenses. For example, if we are looking at auto theft from the central part of the city, the rate of the offense will not take into account the large number of cars which are driven to the city centre by residents of outlying areas. Similarly, we cannot compare commercial burglary rates in two areas if one has many more businesses than the other. Because of these problems, it is best to have a measure of risk, which means the number of crimes per 1,000 targets. It may be difficult, however, to obtain information on such things as the number of bicycles in a particular community, or the number of cars which come into the downtown area on an average day.

- * Rate of Change - is the crime increasing or decreasing? A crime which is increasing in magnitude may be cause for greater concern than one which is declining.

FIGURE 3 PRIORITY SETTING MATRIX

[illegible]

- * Fear - measures of the level of fear in a community are most likely not available unless surveys have been carried out. Media reports, letters to the force or comments to individual officers may be useful indicators.
- * Injury - what are the consequences of the crime? Personal injury is an important concern. If there are problems with violent crime these offenses should be addressed.
- * Dollar loss - Crimes which result in high losses should be dealt with before those in which the cost is not as great.
- * System response - How is the system coping with the problem? If property recovery rates are high and most offenders are being arrested and convicted, the offense may not be as great a concern as it would be if the system was not responding successfully.
- * Reduction potential - is there something which can be done about the problem? Some crimes are more preventable and some offenders more easily caught than others.

It is important to emphasize that once this matrix is complete, the job of setting priorities is not a simple mechanical task. How does one weigh a violent offense where there are injuries, a poor response from the criminal justice system and a low reduction potential against a property offense where recoveries are being made but where the reduction potential is high? The only answer is that the experience and judgement of the police, along with a knowledge of the community and its concerns and priorities, is required in order to make sound decisions.

Section 5:

Formulating a Problem Statement

Once patterns have been identified and priorities have been set, another phase of crime analysis is required in which the patterns must be interpreted. Using the data collected for problem identification, as well as any additional information that can be collected, the problem must be described in as much detail as possible. The result of this work will be a problem statement that will guide the remaining steps in the planning process and will include what is known about the problem, how it is related to other problems in the target community and its possible causes and effects.

A number of different elements are necessary in order to develop a problem statement. Among these are the following:

1. **Target/Victim Characteristics** - these characteristics can help to identify particular vulnerability factors which suggest where future occurrences of the crime might take place. Also, many offenders repeat criminal methods which have worked for them in the past and may continue to return to similar targets and victims. Knowledge of these characteristics may suggest factors which might be altered in order to prevent the crime, or suggest targets or victims which might undergo surveillance. These factors include:

Victim

- age
- sex
- occupation
- is victim a local resident
- location of the incident
- victim knowledge of suspect
- lifestyle target
- type
- location (address, sub-reporting area i.e. atom)
- type of location (i.e. subway station, gas bar. Was the location a crime generator such as bar?)
- type and make of stolen property
- target of vandalism
- security precautions
- cost of offense

2. **Offender Characteristics** - in many cases, the search for offender characteristics will focus police attention on an offender or group of offenders who may be responsible for a series of crimes. At other times, knowledge of offender characteristics will allow the targeting of prevention programs at groups such as high school students who may be involved in particular types of offenses. While the nature of some crimes means that offender information will be limited, educated guesses can be made at some characteristics. For example, certain types of entry may suggest that break and enters are being committed by amateurs rather than by professionals. Some relevant offender characteristics include:
 - age
 - sex
 - clothing or unusual characteristics
 - description of vehicle if used
 - were alcohol or drugs involved
 - single or multiple offenders
 - distance travelled to commit the offense
 - previous criminal history
 - possible motive
3. **Time of the Offense** - While some crime patterns may remain stable, most change over time, particularly when small areas are analyzed. These data are particularly useful for assigning workload and for suggesting m.o. patterns. A number of aspects of the time of an offense can provide useful to the crime analyst. Among these are:
 - time of day
 - time of week
 - seasonality
 - cycles such as the day government checks or pay checks are delivered
 - is problem a long-term or short-term problem

Some caution should be made in interpreting the time an offense took place as these are often only approximations. In many cases, such as break and enters which are discovered when residents return from holidays, the time cannot be accurately determined.

4. **Nature of the Offense** - normally the legal category will be used, but this may not adequately describe the real nature of the problem. For example Wexler and Marx (1986) describe a situation in Boston in which a number of minor offenses such as vandalism did not appear to be a major problem. However, it was found that these offenses were actually directed at members of the black community. Residents were fearful of further

racially-motivated crime and preventive action was necessary. In other cases, the legal category may be too broad. For example, assault may include both a bar fight and domestic violence, which represent very different types of offenses.

5. **Modus Operandi** - knowledge of the manner in which offenses are typically carried out is useful in trying to apprehend the criminal or in preventing future offenses. Some m.o. patterns are unique to particular offenders. Such data are useful both in apprehending suspects and in linking an arrested suspect with other crimes. Other data point out general patterns. For example, if we know that break and enters in an area are unforced apartment entries rather than forced single-family dwelling entries, we can infer something about factors involved in the offense (such as poor key control in apartments) which do not necessarily involve the same offender.
6. **Spatial Aspects** - criminal acts are not randomly distributed geographically. While the police have always known that some locations generate more crime than others, the extent of this over-representation has only recently become known. Some areas have a large pool of potential offenders, while others have "crime generators" such as bars or video arcades which attract potential troublemakers. Because of the importance of this variable, it will be discussed in more detail in a separate section of this manual.
7. **Opportunity Factors** - some crimes occur as a result of particular opportunities that are available to potential offenders. Examples include environmental design (a parking garage with poor lighting, poor access control and limited possibilities for surveillance); "soft" targets (an apartment building or hotel constructed with ineffective locks); and "people" factors such as community apathy, poor supervision of apartments or shopping centres, and the absence of most residents from their homes during the day.
8. **System Response** - this was one of the variables considered in the priority setting matrix. In this phase of the analysis, we consider the reasons why the system is not performing well. For example, if clearance rates for commercial armed robberies are low because of the lack of identification of suspects, the situation may be improved with surveillance cameras. If stolen property was recovered, knowledge of the location of recovery could be important.

Although collecting and analyzing the kinds of information listed above requires a considerable commitment of time and work, the results justify the effort. With clear priorities and a thorough problem description subsequent enforcement and prevention activities will be made much easier. In implementing programs, the police must be aware of the community context in which they operate. This context will be considered in a later section, but first we can look in greater detail at the methods which can be used by the crime analyst.

Section 6:

Basic Techniques of Crime Analysis

There is no methodology which is unique to crime analysis. The techniques are the same as those used in any other social research and can be found in any good social science research methods text. Much of the data used are of very high quality. Crime reports must be accurately prepared, as they form the basis for investigation and for preparation of a case for prosecution. However, other data may be less than perfect - for example, the use of complaints raised at public meetings as an indicator of community concerns. Since the purpose of crime analysis is to solve immediate practical problems, we can be less demanding than would be the case with other types of research as long as the limitations of the information are recognized by decision-makers.

Where does one begin crime analysis? The first step is data collection. Since much of the data used by the crime analyst come from crime reports, it is important that these reports be as complete as possible. While it is possible to obtain information for particular investigations or problems by requiring officers to complete extra data collection forms, there is often resistance to this from people who feel they are already over-burdened by paperwork. It is therefore a great advantage to have as much information as possible contained in the basic reporting forms that are routinely used in the force. With the new UCR, Canadian police forces have a tool which should be adequate for most crime analysis. A great deal of planning by police and by specialists from Statistics Canada have created a tool which will be standardized across the country and which contains most of the information which will be required by crime analysts.

Canada's New Uniform Crime Reporting Survey

The current Uniform Crime Reporting Survey (UCR) has been in use since 1961. While it has been a useful system, it has a number of serious limitations. The most important weakness is that the survey requires only three pieces of information: offenses, clearances and persons. Much of the data actually collected by the police are not used in the UCR. Since the various forces report only aggregate data, little comparative analysis is possible.

The new UCR represents a significant improvement in national statistics and will result in the collection of data which will enhance the capability of many forces to do crime analysis. Much more information will be collected and reported and comparative analysis will be possible because data on individual cases will be reported.

Manual and Automated Data Entry

While crime analysis can be done manually, in all but the smallest jurisdictions computer retrieval and analysis are necessary if an analyst is to provide timely and complete information. In many forces, computer systems do not provide information which is

useful for crime analysis. For example, in one force which has a number of community stations, the computer system will provide a list of individual crime incidents listed by date. Volunteers then categorize incidents by location manually and keep aggregate tallies. This is very time-consuming and limits the analysis which can be done. Since demographic information is not included in the system, rate and risk figures cannot be calculated for geo-codes and are only available for the entire city. While many departments have automated systems with a good analysis capability, there is a need for software that will facilitate the work of crime analysis.

Once a data collection program has been implemented, the actual job of analysis begins. The key is to look for patterns of crime². As Ekblom has observed, "Crime analysis rests on the assumption that crimes are not totally random, isolated and unique events, but can be combined into sets sharing common features and showing distinct patterns. It assumes crimes cluster in place and/or time, focus on particular types of property or victims and are committed by a particular range of methods" (1988:4). Once a pattern has been identified, the job of the analyst is to use the information to identify suspects, to suggest tactics which can be used to deal with future occurrences, or to look for problems underlying the calls for service.

Section 7:

Pattern Identification

Geographic Mapping

Crime analysis is essentially a search for patterns and one of the most basic patterns in geographic. The use of pin or dot maps to show the locations of offenses has been one of the oldest tools used by the police to help solve crimes. The advantage of graphic techniques is that they can be used to summarize information and to present it in a visual way. Think of how much more difficult it would be to plan actions based on a written list of the locations of offenses compared to looking at those same crime locations presented on a map. The clarity of presentation of a map facilitates crime analysis and is also useful in educating police and other decision makers about the need for problem-oriented policing. While pin maps or similar manual techniques are still used by many forces, recent innovations in computer mapping have made this process much simpler and enabled much more sophisticated analysis to be done.

Spatial Analysis

An excellent overview of spatial analysis is provided by Paul and Patricia Brantingham (1984) who discuss three basic techniques which are useful in describing the geographical patterns of crime. These are:

1. Points where crimes occur - the locations of crime occurrences are plotted on a map. Just as the scale of maps can vary, with the level of detail depending on the scale of the map, crime occurrences can also be described at different levels of aggregation. A crime analyst can plot an occurrence at the level of specific room, corner, or building, or at the level of a city or province. A map showing the precise location of a crime can be useful in looking at opportunity factors while more aggregated data may be used for correlating crime with other factors which may be related to crime such as income, employment rates, ethnicity, and sex.

Brantingham and Brantingham describe several ways of presenting locational data. Police are most familiar with representing crimes as points or dots on a map, but crime can also be represented by showing areas with different crime levels by colour or shading (choropleth maps) or by using contour mapping in which points with equal or similar amounts of crime are connected by lines (isopleth maps). Point mapping is the most commonly-used representation for crime analysis which is normally concerned with solving or preventing offenses at specific locations.

2. Flow patterns of crime - while crimes occur at a particular geographic location, patterns of movement are also involved. For a crime to occur, a person who is motivated to commit an offense and an attractive target must intersect in time and space. At a broader geographic level, patterns of crime in cities, regions, countries may relate to spatial flows of people, goods, or employment (Brantingham and Brantingham 1984:233).

The spacial analysis of crime is the analysis of nodes and routes. People are not geographically distributed in a random fashion nor are there patterns of movement random. For example, certain streets or transit lines funnel people toward jobs or schools during the day and take them home at night. Commercial areas such as shopping centres have a great deal more activity than do residential areas. Nodes are centres of activity and routes are the paths leading to these nodes. These can be used to help understand the spatial dynamics of crime.

Perhaps the most common type of spatial analysis involves tracking the routes which offenders take to get to the crime target. For example, the actions taken to prevent burglary would be quite different if the problem is local youth who are committing offenses in their own local communities than if the offenders have travelled a great distance because of the particular attractiveness of the targets. Actions which might be effective against youth committing crimes of opportunity may have limited impact against professionals who are after specific targets.

The analysis of spatial patterns can be quite complex³, but for most purposes relatively simple procedures will be all that is required. A good example of this is an analysis of offenses along the light rail transit (LRT) corridor carried out by the Calgary Police Service (Cuthbert, 1989). In this analysis it was determined that there was a strong correlation between the presence of the LRT corridor and five types of offenses (house break and enter, shop break and enter, street robbery, car prowling/theft, and car prowling/ vandalism). Three of the LRT stations (out of a total of 30 stations) were identified as being in areas with a particularly high risk of these offenses. These stations were all in the central part of Calgary. Analysis of times of offenses suggested that police response be directed between 1500 and 0100 hours. This analysis was supplemented by intelligence reports which indicated that offenders were coming into the city centre from satellite stations, including one station where incarcerated

offenders were dropped on day release. The inference made in this project about the impact of the LRT system might have been stronger if data before the opening of the system had also been analyzed. However, the data which were analyzed do provide a useful tool for the police, especially when they are combined with criminal intelligence information suggesting that a particular M.O. is involved in many of the offense committed near certain LRT stations.

Another type of flow is movement from one jurisdiction to another. Some types of offenders such as robbers and bad cheque artists travel across the country committing offenders. For example, D'Addario (1989) describes one armed robber who travelled east on an Interstate Highway robbing a number of different outlets of the same restaurant chain. Tracking his movements resulted in his being caught in a stake-out.

3. Spatial aggregations of crime data - the study of spatial aggregation is often used by researchers who are trying to explain the causes of crime. For example, a comparison of crime rates in cities with different degrees of social inequality may allow us to make inferences about the relationship between inequality and particular types of criminality.

This type of correlational analysis can also be used in applied work. An innovative example of this is a study of motor vehicle theft in Peel Region (Saville and Murdie, 1988). An initial study of motor vehicle theft indicated that the offense was typically committed near accessible areas such as outdoor parking lots; that most offenders were males 16-20 years old; that availability and opportunity were more important than year and value of the vehicle; that certain areas such as Pearson International Airport accounted for the majority of thefts; that 80-90 percent of the vehicles were recovered; and that most recoveries were made within two days and five miles of the place of theft. This pattern strongly suggests that joy riders, rather than professional thieves, commit most motor vehicle thefts.

Saville and Mufie extend this analysis by looking for areas which do not correspond to this "normal" pattern. They propose the hypothesis that such areas are those where professional thieves might be at work. Because of the low recovery rate when professionals are involved, such areas might require special police programs. The researchers used multiple regression analysis to identify two patrol zones which were "hot spots" and did not fit the normal pattern. While the authors recognize the need for additional analysis and intelligence information from these two

patrol zones, the analysis which they carried out enables police resources to be targeted very specifically.

Computer Mapping

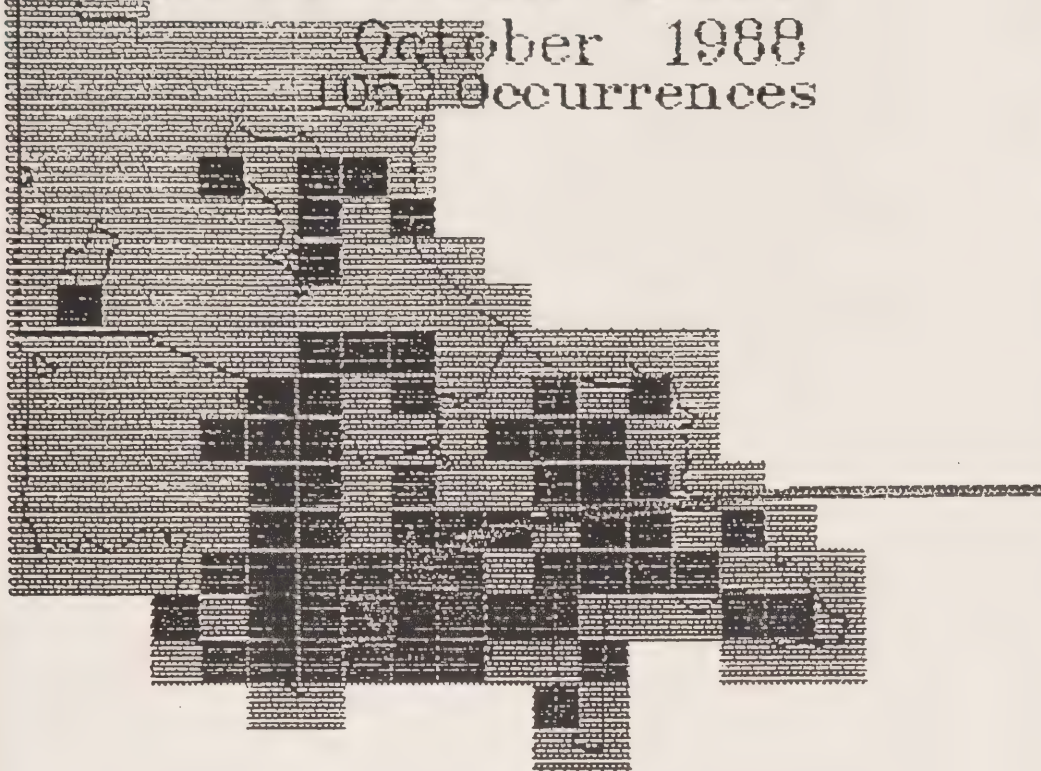
As discussed earlier, if crime analysis is to be useful the information must be made available very quickly. In small jurisdictions it may be possible to keep track of a few crimes by manually plotting locations on a map. If you wish to track a larger number of offenses, however, or if you are in a large jurisdiction, rapid analysis can only be done by computer. While a number of cities have automated analysis systems, very few have the capability of generating maps by computer even though the technology has been available for many years. Because of the utility of such systems, it is likely that computer mapping will become much more widely-used over the next few years.

Saanich British Columbia has acquired a mapping system called LandTrak. While a complete discussion of the capabilities of this system is not possible in the space available, the system is much more than just an electronic pin map. Many different types of information can be mapped including streets, bodies of water, census tracts, police zones, parks, schools, malls, parking lots, bus routes, and Neighbourhood Watch areas. In fact, any geographic information that can be digitized can be added to the system (in California, some cities have plotted earthquake fault lines on the LandTrak system). All types of crime as well as other incidents such as alarm calls and traffic accidents can be mapped and plotted by hour of the week and time of day. By using different colours and symbols, a great deal of information can be included on any map. The scale of the map can easily be changed, so the analyst can quickly move from city-wide data to an individual block, shopping mall or school. The system can also be used by other municipal services and can include such things as hydro, gas, telephone, and sewer lines. The availability of a flexible, computer-based map including all of these services has obvious benefits for helping ensure a coordinated response to various kinds of emergencies. Figure 4 shows an example of output from the Landtrax system.

Thefts from Auto

October 1988

105 Occurrences



	0 - 0
	1 - 2
	3 - 5
	6 - 15

Saanich Plaza

Thefts from Auto

October 1988

105 Occurrences



Day of Week

- Sunday
- Monday
- Tuesday
- Wednesday
- Thursday
- Friday
- Saturday

Section 8:

The Crime Matrix

Most forces do not have the software required for computer mapping, and computer mapping does not point out trends which are not based on geography. The basic analysis tool is the Crime Matrix. A good example of a computer-generated matrix is shown in Figure 5. This is taken from Calgary's Preventive Policing Analysis and Action System (P.P.A.A.S). The Crime Matrix can be generated for the entire city, for districts, for zones, and for individual geo-codes, so geographic patterns can be readily identified. The system contains a number of different offense codes, and routinely prints information on them. Figure 5 shows that crime trends can be tracked over time, and that measures of frequency, rate, and risk are available. The calculation of risk is a major innovation, as it requires the integration of census and other enumerative data into the system. For each geographic level, base constants are entered for such variables as population, dwelling units, business premises, financial institutions, schools and churches, registered motor vehicles, and registered bicycles.

The Matrix serves as a tool by which managers can proactively deal with crime by identifying a trend before it escalates too far. The importance of timely information is obvious, since crime patterns can change quite quickly. Matrices and various levels of aggregation are distributed to line managers on a weekly basis, so there is a considerable degree of accountability in the system.

To show how a Crime Matrix similar to Calgary's can be used, a hypothetical case can be presented. The first step in the search for patterns is to prepare a district-wide crime map or matrix. For example, let us consider the crime of commercial burglary. Since we know the number of commercial premises in each atom or geo-code, we can rank the atoms according to their risk of commercial burglary. We can present this data for the year, quarter and month. This picture of commercial burglary has several purposes. First, it points out which areas have the greatest problems in order to enable the targeting of programs. Second, looking at the data over time and continually monitoring trends will enable the analyst to observe changes in patterns which might require action by the police. For example, if there are 5 burglaries in one weekend in a warehouse district with a low crime rate, the increase will be flagged by the analyst. The increase in rate does not necessarily mean that a crime problem is developing, as they may be the result of random factors. However, it does suggest that further analysis be carried out.

CRIME MATRIX - 1984 WEEK # 7 STARTING FEB 6 UP TO FEB 13 ZONE: 5-1 PRINTED: 84. 2.15 FOR: 5-D.A.

OFFENCE

OFFENCE	FREQUENCY							RATE / 1000 POPULATION							RISK PER TARGET	
	WK 3	WK 4	WK 5	WK 6	WK 7	NUMBER		WK 3	WK 4	WK 5	WK 6	WK 7	YEARLY PROJ.	ACTUAL		
	JAN 9	JAN 16	JAN 23	JAN 30	FEB 6	TODATE		JAN 9	JAN 16	JAN 23	JAN 30	FEB 6	PROJ. YEARLY	TODATE		
B & E - HOUSE	3	3	8	4	4	24		6.2	6.2	16.5	8.2	8.2	7.0	1/ 47	1/ 361	
B & E - COMMERCIAL	0	2	1	2	2	9		.0	4.1	2.0	4.1	4.1	2.6	1/ 18	1/ 143	
B & E - OTHER	1	0	0	0	1	2		2.0	.0	.0	.0	2.0	.5	1/ 1703	1/ 12774	
ROBBERY-COMMERCIAL	0	0	0	0	0	0		.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	1/ 0	1/ 0	
ROBBERY-STREET	0	0	0	0	0	0		.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	1/ 0	1/ 0	
SEX/AGG. ASSAULT	0	0	0	0	0	0		.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	1/ 0	1/ 0	
SEX - ASSAULT	1	2	0	0	0	3		2.0	4.1	.0	.0	.0	.0	1/ 580	1/ 4758	
SEX - INDECENT ACTS	0	0	0	0	0	0		.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	1/ 0	1/ 0	
THEFT - OVER	1	1	0	3	3	11		2.0	2.0	.0	6.2	6.2	3.2	1/ 307	1/ 2322	
THEFT - UNDER	1	1	2	4	2	11		2.0	2.0	4.1	8.2	4.1	3.2	1/ 307	1/ 2322	
THEFT - VEHICLES	0	2	3	3	1	10		.0	4.1	6.2	6.2	2.0	2.9	1/ 157	1/ 1140	
THEFT - BICYCLES	0	1	0	0	1	2		.0	2.0	.0	.0	2.0	.5	1/ 1703	1/ 12774	
DAMAGE TO PROPERTY	1	0	1	3	0	7		2.0	.0	2.0	6.2	.0	2.0	1/ 482	1/ 3649	
ASSAULTS & WOUNDINGS	1	2	0	1	1	6		2.0	4.1	.0	2.0	2.0	1.7	1/ 567	1/ 4258	
DOMESTIC ASSAULT	0	0	0	0	0	0		.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	1/ 0	1/ 0	
DRUGS	0	0	0	2	0	3		.0	.0	.0	4.1	.0	.8	1/ 1161	1/ 8516	
FRAUD	0	0	1	1	0	2		.0	.0	2.0	2.0	.0	.5	1/ 86	1/ 645	
CAR PROWLING/THEFT	2	11	4	3	4	30		4.1	22.8	8.2	6.2	8.2	8.8	1/ 50	1/ 380	
CAR PROWLING/VAND.	3	0	2	2	3	12		6.2	.0	4.1	4.1	6.7	3.5	1/ 126	1/ 950	
SHOPLIFTING	0	0	1	0	0	1		.0	.0	2.0	.0	.0	.2	1/ 184	1/ 1291	

POPULATION: 25549 DWELLINGS: 8665 VEHICLES: 11409 COMMERCIAL: 1291

Identifying a high crime rate or an unusual crime trend is only the first step in crime analysis. Once a target crime and area have been identified, the next step is to find out as much information as possible about the crime. Additional analysis can be done with some automated data systems. Figure 6 shows an example of a detailed analysis run on Calgary's system. While this example is for the entire city, the same information can be obtained from a smaller area as well.

Detailed information concerning time, location, and m.o. factors enables the analyst to tailor a preventive program to a specific problem.

Other sources of data can also be used in defining the problem. The original occurrence reports should be pulled and reviewed so that the analyst has a complete picture of each of the events. Contact reports or other special reports which have been entered on the system may be used to supplement the information obtained from occurrence reports. Some computer systems will also match descriptions, vehicles, stolen property, M.O., or identify individuals in the area such as those included in the SHOCAP program which is discussed in a later section. Analysts may also productively spend time talking with officers working in the target area and visiting crime scenes to look for patterns such as vulnerability factors, which might help to solve or to prevent the offenses.

Additional analysis of data from the occurrence report can also help in locating patterns. For example, the following hypothetical table shows an interesting pattern for apartment burglaries.

Table 1

Type of Entry	Type of Residence			
	Single Family	2-4 Family	Apartment	All Dwellings
Unforced				
Window	8.0%	6.0%	6.0%	5.7%
Door without key	12.0%	16.0%	20.0%	15.5%
Door with key	2.0%	4.0%	15.0%	5.5%
Forced				
Window	35.0%	30.0%	23.0%	29.4%
Door	43.0%	44.0%	36.0%	44.0%
Number =	2808	1015	1557	5380

In this example, one pattern which stands out is the relatively high risk of unforced entry with keys in apartment buildings. Follow-up investigation might reveal that the problem

PPAAS CRIME ANALYSIS
CITY - FROM 890101 TO 890601 PRINTED: 890703
01 B & E - HOUSE

DAYS OF WEEK			TIMES			DAYS OF MONTH					
MON	227	14%	00-02	78	5%	1	62	4%	16	35	2%
TUE	247	16%	02-04	51	3%	2	46	3%	17	53	3%
WED	238	15%	04-06	33	2%	3	63	4%	18	66	4%
THU	253	16%	06-08	166	10%	4	54	3%	19	67	4%
FRI	282	18%	08-10	233	15%	5	38	2%	20	76	5%
SAT	215	14%	10-12	156	10%	6	60	4%	21	39	2%
SUN	120	8%	12-14	196	12%	7	45	3%	22	41	3%
			14-16	114	7%	8	55	3%	23	47	3%
TOTAL:	1582		16-18	141	9%	9	50	3%	24	70	4%
			18-20	180	11%	10	62	4%	25	56	4%
			20-22	119	8%	11	57	4%	26	56	4%
			22-24	115	7%	12	41	3%	27	47	3%
						13	52	3%	28	51	3%
						14	54	3%	29	35	2%
						15	29	2%	30	40	3%
									31	35	2%

LOCATIONS		EXACT LOCATIONS		HOW ATTACKED	
RESIDENTIAL	1064	DOOR	754	WALK IN	391
APTMT 5+ SUITES	259	WINDOW	753	BREAKING	305
DUPLEX	146	CHUTE	25	PRYING	298
GARAGE (PRIVATE)	60	BALCONY	9	KICKING	138
HOTEL/MOTEL	23	LIVING ROOM	4	REMOVING	114
APTMT 3-4 SUITES	10	BEDROOM	3	FORCING	103
TRAILER	7	KITCHEN	1	CRAWLED	69
GOVERNMENT	2	BATHROOM	1	CUTTING	37

MEANS OF ATTACK		OBJECTS OF ATTACK		TRADEMARKS	
HANDS	1007	JEWELRY	286	KEY	91
FEET	160	CASH/COINS	254	PHONE TAMPERING	5
SCREWDRIVER	128	PHOTO EQUIPMENT	159	WEAPON-OTHER	4
KEY	93	SOUND EQUIPMENT	126	SAFE ATTACK	4
JIMMY	59	SPORT GOODS	42	EXCRETE	4
KNIFE	35	RECORDS	40	KILL-THREAT	3
STONE	23	CLOTHING	35	KNIFE	2
VICE GRIPS	12	RADIO/T.V.	35		

TOP GEOCODES					
1109- 32	1202- 14	4579- 9	4731- 7	6294- 5	3169- 4
3316- 31	1110- 13	4381- 9	3174- 7	6507- 5	2603- 4
3411- 27	2231- 12	6305- 9	3401- 7	3254- 5	4203- 3
2551- 24	3232- 12	2443- 9	6265- 7	3237- 5	4534- 3
1106- 22	1203- 12	4433- 9	1777- 7	6274- 5	4339- 3
2331- 20	3282- 12	6256- 9	3301- 7	3277- 5	6428- 3
3310- 19	3271- 11	2417- 9	4686- 6	4516- 5	6427- 3
3553- 19	4604- 11	2636- 8	4378- 6	4441- 4	6461- 3
2612- 18	3306- 10	4711- 8	4257- 6	4445- 4	6607- 3
1604- 16	4701- 10	6658- 8	6291- 6	3251- 4	6999- 3
1651- 15	2432- 10	4485- 8	4213- 6	3412- 4	6353- 3
4642- 15	4321- 10	3305- 7	6602- 6	4348- 4	3410- 3
1201- 15	6282- 9	2251- 7	4316- 6	6272- 4	1103- 3
3229- 14	4554- 9	6301- 7	1105- 6	2605- 4	3261- 2
1111- 14	2637- 9	4208- 7	4401- 5	4576- 4	3252- 2

was the use of master keys and issuing the same keys to consecutive tenants. The suggested solution to these problems would be implementing better key control and changing locks when tenants leave, and might be rather obvious once the pattern was identified through crime analysis.

Searching for "Hot Spots"

Perhaps the most basic information used by the crime analyst is location. While address information has always been available on police crime reports, it was very time-consuming to collate manually. The development of modern police computer systems has made it very easy to list calls by address. The data base from the dispatch system (CAD) will include all calls for service, not just those for which reports are filed.

When addresses of calls for service and criminal incidents are listed, it becomes apparent that a very small number of locations receive a high proportion of police services. For example, Sherman *et al* (1988) analyzed over 300,000 calls which were made to the Minneapolis police over a year. They found that calls were highly concentrated, with over fifty percent of calls made to only 3.3% of addresses. The top 5% of locations generated an average of 24 calls each during the year while almost 40% of locations had no calls and an additional 30% had only 1 call. Predatory crimes were even more highly concentrated. 113 places had 5 or more robberies; 37 places had five or more auto thefts and 12 places had five or more rapes. 95% of locations had none of these offenses. Other offenses such as domestic disputes, assaults, and burglaries were similarly concentrated. A similar analysis was done by Southland Corporation who found that in 1980 3% of their 7-Eleven stores accounted for 29% of their armed robberies (D'Addario, 1989).

While many of us have considered certain neighbourhoods or parts of the city to have high crime rates requiring a high level of police service, most addresses within these areas have no crimes. Focusing on particular locations within neighbourhoods can be a more productive way of policing as the risk of crime varies, often substantially, within communities. Analysis of characteristics of locations with high numbers of calls has great potential for reducing the overall call load by addressing the factors underlying these calls⁴. Many different methods can be used to address high-crime addresses, including revoking licenses of bars with a great deal of crime; improving security in convenience stores; installing surveillance cameras in underground passages or parking lots, etc. While it is important to focus on specific addresses, the analyst should also be aware of the fact that a crime hot spot may be larger than just one location. For example, a street with several bars may generate a large number of calls even though no individual location is particularly troublesome.

An example of the potential for address-oriented analysis is described by Engstad and Evans (1980). A constable in a British Columbia community noted that calls for service for vandalism, noise, and other minor offenses seemed much more frequent at one apartment complex than at a very similar building in the same zone. A subsequent analysis of calls showed that one building generated over 150 calls per month while the other averaged only 10. Further research indicated that the only significant difference between the two buildings was the quality of the management. The building with a high number of calls had a tenant-manager who did not maintain the building and who was lax in enforcing rules in and around the building. After the Chief Constable encouraged the manager to live up to his responsibilities, the number of calls dropped to the level of the other building.

The Community Context

Once a problem has been described, it must be put into context. Information about the physical characteristics of the community as well as the social characteristics of the residents is needed. Such information may be obtained from a number of sources including city planners, municipal boards, community surveys, interviews with people who know the community, and observation of the neighbourhood. While a separate manual in this series (Developing a Community Profile) deals with this issue in detail⁵, some examples of community information which is important in problem-oriented policing are listed below.

Physical Characteristics

- * **Transportation and Circulation Patterns.** The presence of a major thoroughfare brings non-resident traffic into a community which may lead to higher crime rates. The thoroughfare also physically divides communities, which may hinder prevention activities.
- * **Population Size and Density.** Information about population size is required in computing crime rates for a community. Density may be a causal factor in crime if overcrowding is seen as a problem by residents, or if houses are widely scattered and residents are unable to watch each other's homes.
- * **Type and Condition of Housing.** If housing is old and run-down, physical security may be a problem. A neighbourhood consisting predominantly of high-rise buildings will require a different response than one with a high proportion of single-family dwellings.
- * **Concentration, Types and Mix of Businesses and Industries.** An area which has a mixture of industrial and residential buildings will require special

attention. Shopping malls may contribute to crime because they bring outsiders into the community. Since many types of crime are associated with alcohol use, drinking establishments present particular problems. Fear of crime may be high if senior citizens' housing is close to a housing project with a high proportion of single parent families with unsupervised children.

- * **Boundary Characteristics.** Crime tends to flourish in areas of transition from one neighbourhood to another, particularly from an industrial or commercial area to a residential one.
- * **Neighbourhood Condition.** Observation of a neighbourhood can determine whether or not it looks "orderly". Areas that are improving will likely have different problems and will require different solutions than neighbourhoods which are deteriorating.

Social Characteristics

- * **Age.** Although the elderly are not victimized any more frequently than other citizens, they often feel particularly vulnerable to crime. In addition, the age mix in an area is relevant, particularly if there are high proportions of both teenagers and seniors.
- * **Gender.** Women are vulnerable to certain types of crime such as sexual assault. Areas with a high proportion of women working late shifts, (e.g. near hospitals), may have problems with crime and the fear of crime.
- * **Social Class.** The economic level of a neighbourhood will have a strong influence on the types of crimes which take place there and may also affect the ability of the residents to deal with problems on their own.
- * **Race and Ethnicity.** Different racial and ethnic groups have distinct crime problems and may respond to these problems in different ways. Some groups may feel alienated from the police and from other official community organizations, or may be isolated because of language, religion or cultural differences. Groups may bring their own crime patterns with them, or may continue to fight disputes which occurred in their former countries.
- * **Household Composition.** Different types of household have different crime problems. If most residents are single or members of dual-career families they will be away during the day, so there will be no natural surveillance in the area. If most families are headed by poor single parents, supervision of children may be a problem.

- * Degree of Heterogeneity. Communities made up of people of similar characteristics are more easily organized than those in which people have less in common. Differences in age, income, ethnicity, race, or language may lead to suspicion and hostility between groups.
- * Stability. Some communities are more stable than others. In areas with a high proportion of transients, crime rates are likely to be high and participation in community activities is likely to be low.
- * Neighbourhood Organization and interaction. Crime rates will likely be lower and prevention programs more effective in communities where there is a great deal of interaction between neighbours, residents and the police and where neighbourhood organizations are strong.
- * General Economic Conditions. How are employment and business trends affecting the community? What is the level of unemployment? Who is most affected?

Disseminating Crime Analysis Information

The information provided by crime analysts will not likely be used effectively unless it is designed to fit the needs of potential users and is distributed in an efficient and effective manner. Analysts should be aware of the fact that not all members of the force will be equally receptive to their information, especially where the crime analysis function is new. Over the years people develop their own work styles, and there is often a reluctance to change. Thus analysts may have to literally market their services, a task which is most easily accomplished if the clients are able to make use of the information the analysts provide. All users need information presented in a clear, simple fashion. Technical details of the analysis should not normally be included as they may obscure the message. Most importantly, the information should help the users to work more effectively.

Distribution of Information

It is important that crime analysis be disseminated as broadly as possible within the force. In a small force, the process may be an informal one based on direct personal contact between the analyst and those who will be using the information. In larger services, distribution of information must be integrated into the operating procedures. For example, in Calgary, line officers including Zone Commanders are given weekly print-outs showing crime trends in their areas. Administrators are made accountable for actions to deal with problems that are identified by the analysis.

Special information can also be released in the form of special bulletins (Figure 7) or memoranda if an immediate response is needed. Relevant information in the regular and special reports can be communicated to the patrol officers either in written form or through roll calls and meetings. It is important not to burden patrol officers with too much information, as they may become overloaded and ignore material which is important to them.

Information must also be shared with centralized sections within the force, particularly those such as Criminal Investigations, Special Operations, and Research and Planning which also collect and analyze information. If the analysis function is broadened beyond a narrow focus on crime, units such as Crime Prevention, Victim Services, Community Relations, and Traffic should also be involved.

Because offenders are very mobile and because many offenses such as drug importation involve widely-dispersed networks of people, information must also be disseminated to other jurisdictions. Integrated units such as the Coordinated Law Enforcement Unit (CLEU) in British Columbia provide means of communicating information and extending crime analysis over a wide area. Such communication networks will be more important in the future as more types of crime become national and even global in scope.

Feedback to Crime Analysis Units

Crime analysis will not be successful if information flows only one way. A relationship must be built up with field personnel which results in information coming to the crime analysis unit. This will happen only if the field officers feel that the analysis unit is useful to them. To ensure that this is the case, crime analysts should routinely assess the quality of their work by obtaining feedback from users. For example, if a central analysis unit prepares a report on youth gangs in the community, a follow-up should be done to ensure that the information was helpful and that the format of the report was effective. This can be done both by monitoring the activities of the gangs and by talking to field officers who have made use of the material.

Feedback can be made part of the analysis process. For example, the analyst can work with field personnel to prepare a plan to deal with problems which have been identified. The process should be monitored to ensure that the steps in the plan have been carried out, and the results of the activity should be noted. Several forces have developed special evaluation forms which are sent to users so that feedback becomes part of the information flow. It is probably unnecessary to gather information in this detail, however, on a continuous basis as long as a conscious effort is made to follow-up actions which result from crime analysis. In automated forces this may be done by tracking targeted crime through the weekly reporting system.

****CONFIDENTIAL:** For Police Use Only. This information has not been verified and cannot be used as evidence.**

INVESTIGATIVE LEADS BULLETIN

DATE: 7/24

TO: Investigations, Crime Prevention
FROM: Crime Analysis
SUBJECT: Follow-up to Burglary Pattern Identification

In reference to Alert Bulletin issued 7/22, a suspicious vehicle has been seen in the area of the burglary pattern. A search of the crime analysis suspect vehicle file yields nine possible subjects who own blue GM vehicles with Virginia registry. They are listed below for further investigation:

* _____	* _____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
* Stephen R. Stiles	_____	* _____
211 Ocean Blvd.	_____	_____
78 Chevy Malibu	_____	_____
(VA) XYZ-967	_____	_____

*denotes previous history of burglary

Structure of Crime Analysis Unit

In order to do an effective job of crime analysis, high quality information must be gathered, thorough analysis carried out, and the results must be disseminated to all those who are in a position to respond to the problems identified through crime analysis. The diversity of this job requires analysts to work in several different parts of the organization. This may, of course, conflict with the fact that resources are usually limited. It is important to note that this model of crime analysis is not relevant to small police forces with limited resources or those without crime analysis units.

District Analyst

One of the current trends in policing is decentralization. Many forces are moving into a system of zone policing where District Commanders, Zone Commanders, and Community Officers take greater responsibility for a particular geographic area and work with residents to resolve local problems. In order to do this effectively, the analysis function must also be decentralized. District analysts are responsible for a relatively small part of the community and work directly with the line supervisors and patrol officers who are on the street. These district analysts are in the best position to collect and analyze information about the local area and to work with district and zone officers in the problem-solving process. While they will have a working relationship with a central analysis unit (if one exists) they must report to the District Commander since he is responsible for utilizing the results of the analyst's work. Reporting to the District Commander also helps to ensure that the role of the analyst is taken seriously by District personnel, and that lines of communication are initiated and maintained with all other units in the District. These two factors are important in a situation where an analyst who may be junior in rank and seniority is giving advice and direction to superiors. Being located in the District office makes it much easier both to disseminate information to district personnel and to gather information from them.

Central Analysis Unit

While it is essential to have an analyst at the District level, some functions also must be done centrally. A number of the crime analysis tasks are not specific to a particular district or zone. Examples of such tasks include the collating of intelligence material to identify groups of criminal associates through link analysis and associate matrices; dealing with offenses which may involve other jurisdictions; looking at city-wide patterns of crimes and other calls for service for purposes of resource deployment, enforcement, and prevention; assisting investigations through case management; preparing cases for prosecution by charting events and preparing exhibits; allowing the development of an

analysis team made up of people with different kinds of skills such as computer programming and criminal intelligence and finally, providing a source of expertise for training and standardizing the work of analysts throughout the force.

Many of these functions involve specialized skills in computer programming and applications and in a centralized unit it is feasible to hire civilians to bring these skills to the force.

What if it is not possible to have both district and central analysts? If a choice has to be made, it would probably favour a Central Analysis Unit. Such a unit would enable a core of expertise to be built up among people who have special training and who are working together on a regular basis. Consistent supervision of analysts is easier in a centralized system. As a compromise measure, it may even be possible to give individual analysts responsibility for particular districts on a part-time basis in order to provide some decentralized service.

No matter where the crime analysis unit is located, it will not be successful unless it is supported by the force. Resources must be available to adequately collect and analyze data. Even the best information, however, cannot prevent or solve crime⁶. The crime analyst must be actively supported by operations personnel. Unless those in patrol and investigative roles are willing to cooperate, the work of the analysts will be wasted. Internal acceptance and credibility can be assured both by clear support from police managers and through providing useful information to the field.

Section 9:

Future Trends in Crime Analysis

As we move into what is being called the information age, both the amount of data available and the means of analyzing that data are steadily increasing. In this final section, several innovations in crime analysis will be described which illustrate the ways in which the police will move into the information age.

SHOCAP: Applied Crime Analysis

Building on the Integrated Criminal Apprehension Program (ICAP), the U.S. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention developed the Serious Habitual Offender Comprehensive Action Program (SHOCAP). This program promotes an integrated approach to juveniles with repeated involvement in the juvenile justice system. While most juveniles have probably violated the law, research has shown that a small proportion of juveniles become seriously involved in criminal activity, and are responsible for a disproportionate amount of delinquency. Typical of this research on high rate offenders in work by David Farrington (1987) who has shown that only 6% of youth commit 50% of the acts of delinquency.

Recognizing that these offenders typically have many problems in addition to their criminality, SHOCAP involves many different agencies including the police, prosecutors, courts, corrections, schools and human service agencies. Using crime analysis to identify and to track these chronic offenders, SHOCAP encourages these agencies to coordinate their activities, using comprehensive case histories. The program encourages the identification of problem juveniles as they become chronic offenders. The criteria for identification for SHOCAP will vary from place to place depending on resources and crime patterns, but must be set high enough that only really serious offenders are included. Typically, the program would involve only 1-2% of those youth who have had a contact with the police for a criminal event. To identify potential SHOCAP offenders, the Calgary Police use their computer to provide a list of all 12-17 year old offenders. This list is manually searched and is checked for aliases. A point system is used for selection based on the number and type of offenses each youth has committed.

Once identified, SHOCAP offenders are given special attention by the police. For example, M.O. patterns of these youth are matched against crimes which have taken place, particularly those which have occurred near the residences of SHOCAP offenders. Follow-ups are encouraged through directed patrol and the youth's activities are tracked through the use of field interrogation cards. In cooperation with Youth Court officials, delays in court processing are minimized and plea bargaining and other forms of sentence reduction are minimized. Detailed case information is provided to the court to assist in sentencing.

Special programs are also implemented to assist SHOCAP offenders. As many are from troubled family backgrounds, have alcohol and drug problems as well as problems in school, social service agencies and schools work with these youth and provide them with extra assistance where it is required. Information available to the police is supplemented with data from these other agencies so that decisions can be based upon more complete knowledge of the youth. Educational Management Teams and Human Services Case Management Teams may be formed to deal with the youth's problems in a coordinated fashion. These agencies also cooperate with the police in developing programs for controlling the youth in the community through measures like ensuring school attendance. If criminal activity continues and the youth are detained, special diagnostic and treatment programs are provided and steps are taken to assist the SHOCAP offenders with re-entry to the community after release. These aftercare programs involve intensive supervision and the provision of opportunities such as special school programs.

SHOCAP is a proactive, preventive program which is supported by crime analysis. The information provided by police analysts enables the early identification of chronic offenders and allows the entire system to focus its efforts on controlling and helping youth who are responsible for a disproportionate amount of criminal behaviour and who typically progress to adult criminal careers.

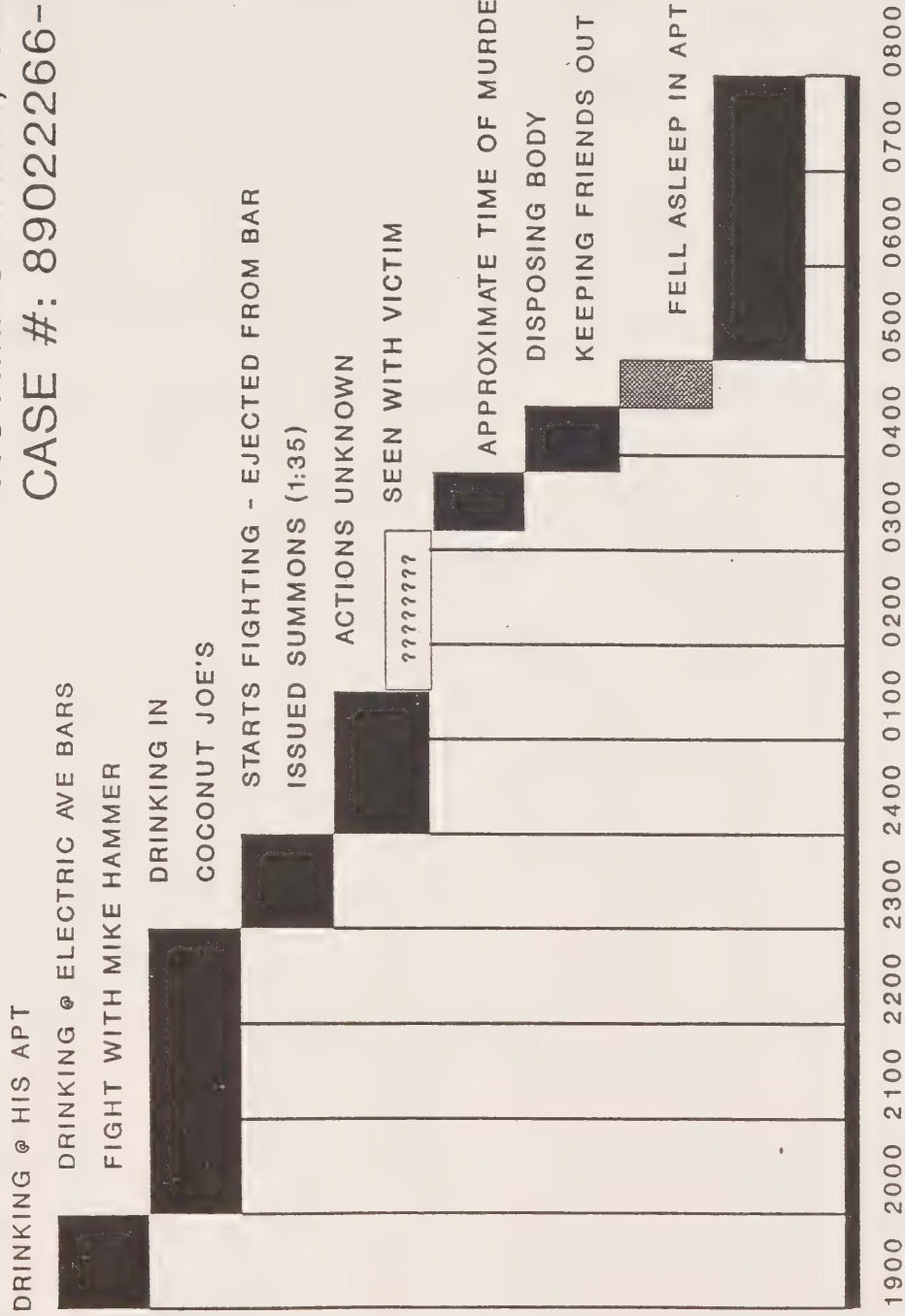
Single Crime Analysis

A variation of traditional crime analysis techniques is needed for assisting in the investigation of a single major crime. While the analyst should always consider the possibility that the crime is part of the pattern (such as serial killing), the role is normally to assist in technical aspects of the investigation such as case management. Flow charts can be made of events, including the criminal event and the investigation process (Figures 8 and 9). Evidence can be catalogued (Figure 10) and statements can be entered into the computer. In a very extensive investigation, large numbers of people might be interviewed. Analysts can help to prepare and analyze a questionnaire such as that shown in Figure 11.

Handling matters in this way has a number of advantages. A systematic record such as a flow chart of events can clarify time sequence and point out gaps which might require investigation. Material on the computer can quickly be analyzed, searched, and presented in different ways. Charts and flow diagrams can assist prosecutors in clearly presenting complex events to judges and juries.

BARNEY RUBBLE'S ACTIVITIES

VICTIM: O'HARA, SCARLET
CASE #: 89022266-6



APRIL 21, 1989

APRIL 22, 1989

CAU 89/05/01

CASE # 89022265-3
CPS PERSONNEL AND EVENT FLOW

DATE	TIME	CPS MEMBER (S)	REG. ACTIVITY OF MEMBER
89.04.22	0816	KINNEE, RAYMOND	ENTER GARBAGE DISPOSAL @ 4516 VALIANT DR
89.04.22	0816	KINNEE, RAYMOND	FOUND NAKED HUMAN BODY
89.04.22	0816	KINNEE, RAYMOND	CALLED CPS
89.04.22	0820	GASKA	2463 DISPATCHED TO SCENE
89.04.22	0820	HUMESTON	1879 DISPATCHED TO SCENE
89.04.22	0820	JOHNSTON	2618 DISPATCHED TO SCENE
89.04.22	0821	DUTY STAFF SGT.	NOTIFIED
89.04.22	0823	DUTY INSPECTOR	NOTIFIED
89.04.22	0825	JOHNSTON	2618 ATTENDED AT 4516 VALIANT DR. NW
89.04.22	0829	HUMESTON	1879 ARRIVED AT SCENE
89.04.22	0830	HUMESTON	1879 CONTINUITY OF SCENE WHERE BODY FOUND
89.04.22	0835	GASKA	2463 ARRIVED AT SCENE
89.04.22	0843		DECIDED EVENT AS HOMICIDE
89.04.22	0845		NOTIFIED HOMICIDE UNIT
89.04.22	0849	CHEYNE, DONNA	ME NOTIFIED
89.04.22	0856	WOOD	1673 NOTIFIED
89.04.22	0900	JOHNSON	1491 STANDBY AT DIST 3
89.04.22	0900	LARABIE	2018 STANDBY AT DIST 3
89.04.22	0900	MCGIMPSEY	1947 STANDBY AT DIST 3
89.04.22	0909	MCMATH	2703 ARRIVED AT SCENE
89.04.22	0911	MCMATH	2703 OBTAINED NAMES ETC FROM FRONT DR OF COMPLEX
89.04.22	0938	CHEYNE, DONNA	ME ATTENDED
89.04.22	1001	BURN (IDENT)	1759 ARRIVED AT SCENE
89.04.22	1001	GOSS (IDENT)	2059 ARRIVED AT SCENE
89.04.22	1001	NEIL (IDENT)	2345 ARRIVED AT SCENE
89.04.22	1014	LAUINGER/ACHESON	HOM SCENE EXAMINATION
89.04.22	1014	WOOD/DUNN	HOM INQUIRIES AND INTERVIEWS
89.04.22	1015	GOSS (IDENT)	2059 TOOK PHOTOS REAR PARKING AREA & WHERE BODY FOUND
89.04.22	1019	S/SGT WHISTLECRAFT	HOM ATTENDED SCENE
89.04.22	1025	INSP. FERGUSON	1180 ARRIVED AT SCENE
89.04.22	1025	LAUINGER (HOMICIDE)	1704 ATTENDED
89.04.22	1025	ACHESON (HOMICIDE)	1779 ATTENDED
89.04.22	1055	LARABIE (3GIS)	2018 ATTENDED
89.04.22	1055	JOHNSON (3GIS)	1491 ATTENDED
89.04.22	1055	MCGIMPSEY (3GIS)	1947 ATTENDED
89.04.22	1056	LARABIE (3GIS)	2018 DOOR INQUIRIES OF APARTMENT BLOCK
89.04.22	1126	MORKIN (ROBBERY)	1706 ARRIVED AT SCENE
89.04.22	1126	TAYLOR (ROBBERY)	1712 ARRIVED AT SCENE
89.04.22	1127	LAUINGER/ACHESON	HOM SEARCHED GARBAGE BIN
89.04.22	1127	GOSS (IDENT)	2059 PHOTOGRAPHED CONTENTS OF GARBAGE BIN
89.04.22	1134	WOOD/DUNN	ENTERED SUITE B8
89.04.22	1134		B8 OCCUPIED BY BRILL, LAYCOCK, HAMMEL

HOMICIDE UNIT - EXHIBIT FLOW

NO.	EXHIBIT	TAKEN FROM	SEIZED BY	CONTINUITY
001	PINE NEEDLE	SCENE: FLOOR LEFT OF LAUINGER DOOR TO SUITE B8		
002	PINE BOUGH	SCENE: FLOOR LEFT OF LAUINGER DOOR TO SUITE B8		
003	DRIED LEAF	SCENE: FLOOR 12" IN LAUINGER FRONT OF DOOR TO B8		
004	HAIR	SCENE: TOP OF HINGE LAUINGER ON WEST DOOR OF DUMPSTER	HF	89/05/02
005	LEAVES	SCENE: FLOOR OF LAUINGER GARBAGE ROOM		
006	FIBRE	SCENE: SPRING LAUINGER EAST(RIGHT) BIN DOOR	HF	89/05/02
007	GARBAGE BAG BLACK WITH CONTENTS	SCENE: DUMPSTER NEAR LAUINGER VICTIM'S LEGS	CONTENT EXAMINED DISCARDED	
008	WHITE T-SHIRT MULTI-COLORED	SCENE: DUMPSTER NEAR LAUINGER VICTIM'S LEGS	HF	89/05/02
009	HAIR	SCENE: BETWEEN LEFT LAUINGER FOOT BIG & SECOND TOE	HF	89/05/02
010	HAIR	SCENE: SECOND TOE LAUINGER LEFT FOOT	HF	89/05/02
011	HAIR	SCENE: BIG TOE LEFT LAUINGER FOOT	HF	89/05/02
012	HAIR	SCENE: TOP OF LEFT LAUINGER ANKLE	HF	89/05/02
013	HAIR	SCENE: LEFT SIDE LAUINGER BOTTOM OF LEFT FOOT	HF	89/05/02
014	HAIR	SCENE: SOLE OF LEFT LAUINGER FOOT	HF	89/05/02
015	WHITE FIBRE	SCENE: LEFT CALF LAUINGER MUSCLE	HF	89/05/02

HEMLOCK CR. QUESTIONNAIRE

DATE: _____ TIME: _____

NAME: _____ AGE: _____

APT: _____ BLOCK: _____

STREET: _____

CO-TENANTS: _____ AGE: _____

_____ AGE: _____

_____ AGE: _____

REGULAR VISITORS: _____ AGE: _____

ADDRESS: _____

EMPLOYED Y/N WHO: _____

NORMAL HOURS OF WORK: _____

NORMAL MODE OF TRANSPORT: _____

NOTICED ANY UNUSUAL ACTIVITY: _____

COMMENTS/ADDITIONAL INFO: _____

QUESTION?

COMPLETED BY: _____ REG _____

PLEASE FORWARD TO C.A.U. WHEN COMPLETED (701)

Text Retrieval

Free-text retrieval is a powerful tool which is now being used by crime analysts. The computer programs discussed earlier in this report will work only with pre-coded data. Variables are entered into the computer as numbers. For example, sex is coded as 1=female, 2=male. With text retrieval programs, words or phrases in a text database can be quickly searched. The Calgary Police Service uses a program called Text204 which retrieves text. The program has been used for tasks such as searching for common phrases in hold-up notes and for looking at common patterns in sexual assault cases. In the sexual assault project, a total of 5047 occurrences were searched and 8 offenses were found to be similar. While this search took only a few minutes with Text 204, it would probably not have been done manually because of the weeks of time which would have been required.

Instant Electronic Data Input

One of the major problems in crime analysis today is the lack of timely information. In forces without computerized record systems, it is extremely difficult to get information which will be tactically useful. Even in automated forces it may take several days before information from crime reports is entered into the system, which may be too late in some cases. A few forces, however, are now entering police reports on lap-top computers. At the end of a shift, the diskette can be directly up-loaded to the mainframe computer and there is no additional data entry requirement. This system involves much less work for officers who do not even need to return to the station to prepare their reports and analysis can be done almost immediately.

The ease of entering crime data directly into the computer will likely increase data quality, as the reporting burden on the field offices will be reduced. Also, as immediate feedback to line personnel becomes possible, the data produced by crime analysis will become more useful.

Fully Automated Crime Analysis

Chang *et al* define fully automated systems as those which "provide decision-making capabilities as well as data storage, search, and retrieval facilities" (1979:4). A fully automated system will search for patterns such as M.O. without being queried by an analyst. An early example of an automated system was operational in Dallas in 1978. However, such systems have been limited by their inability to read narrative information and by having insufficient information entered by the computer. As a result, the computer identified many false patterns. In Dallas, only 11% of the patterns identified were confirmed by subsequent analysis (Chang *et al*, 1979). As artificial intelligence

systems become better-developed, such automated decision-making will become part of policing. The utility of such systems will be enhanced by the developments in text retrieval and instant electronic input discussed above.

Conclusion

Information is the major tool used in policing. Crime analysis provides a systematic method for collecting, analysing and applying information. In this manual, we have focused on the use of crime analysis to prevent crime and to apprehend offenders. Additionally, it is used as a means of making decisions about how to deploy police resources. Since the days of August Vollmer, statistical information has been used in making decisions about the assignment of officers to patrol beats. The systematic use of crime analysis can make such decisions more effectively whether instruments are long-term, such as determining the staffing of police divisions and districts⁷ or short-term, such as assigning officers to directed patrol to deal with particular crime problems.

The fact that the information provided by crime analysis can be accessible to all levels of the police department can help to ensure a higher degree of accountability than is now the case. A system in which a city is broken into police zones and into geo-codes or atoms within those zones clearly locates the responsibility for the initiation of activity to reduce the impact of crime problems.

Despite its potential, there are very few places where crime analysis is being used effectively. In some departments, computer software will not provide the information required by analysts. In others, crime analysis units are understaffed and underfunded. Since the police are in the business of dealing with information, a higher priority must be placed on utilizing that information more effectively. Several of the police officers interviewed for this study pointed out the need for a major initiative in developing national standards which could give direction to local forces and which would facilitate information sharing. They also saw a need for training programs beginning at the recruit level with data entry (typing) skills and familiarization with data analysis and moving up to very sophisticated national courses for both managers and for specialists in crime analysis.

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Endnotes

1. Many of these goals are taken from the operations manual of the Fairfax County (Va.) Police Department.
2. Note that the analysis need not be limited to official crime categories. For example, the Calgary police have found it useful to count carprowlings as a separate category.
3. For example, Brantingham and Brantingham (1984) discuss gravity-potential modelling, graph theory and diffusion modelling. However, these techniques require a great deal of statistical expertise.
4. Sherman and his colleagues point out some of the methodological factors which must be considered in doing a complete analysis of crime locations. For example, the concentration of people affects the risk of victimization as does the hours a particular location is open.
5. A good example of an extensive community profile is the annual series of environmental assessments carried out by the Planning and Development Branch fo the Metropolitan Toronto Police. While these assessments provide a good model, they cover the entire city and problem-oriented policing requires that this work also be done for smaller areas.
6. A clear example of this can be found in the evaluation of the Integrated Criminal Aprrehension Program (ICAP) by Gay, Beall and Bowers (1984). Because of research indicating that information was the crucial factor in making arrests, a major component of ICAP was improving the crime analysis capability of participating departments. However, their evaluation found that crime analysis had a limited impact due to the "lack of operational support from patrol officers and investigators. None of the sites developed a directed patrol that routinely used crime analysis information to develop tactical plans" (1984:9).
7. For example, Edmonton used crime analysis to determine the locations of their community offices.

COMMUNITY POLICING

Shaping the Future

THE ROLE OF CITIZEN VOLUNTEERS



Ministry of the
Solicitor General and
Correctional Services

Ontario

Preface

The Role of Citizen Volunteers was prepared under contract for the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada by Christopher R. Walker and Sandra Gail Walker.

This report is part of a series of manuals on community policing produced jointly by the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario and the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada. The objective of the series is to provide information on the implementation of community policing, focusing on planning, management processes, training and operational strategies. These reports are designed for use by all members of the police services, police services boards, community groups, students of policing/criminology, educational facilities, police college instructors, and government officials.

*Barry Leighton & Marsha Mitzak
Series Editors*

NOTE: *The views expressed in this report are those of the author and not necessarily those of the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario or the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada.*

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C.R.W.

S.G.W.

Table of Contents

SECTION 1: INTRODUCTION	1
SECTION 2: STRATEGIES FOR USING VOLUNTEERS	2
SECTION 3: WHO IS THE VOLUNTEER?	3
Recruiting the Volunteer	3
Qualities of the Volunteer	4
What Volunteers Expect	5
Age and Volunteering	5
SECTION 4: SELECTION AND TRAINING	6
The Selection Process	6
Who Should Select	7
Training	8
How Trained is Well Trained	9
SECTION 5: SUPERVISION	10
Volunteers Supervising Volunteers	11
Assessment of Volunteers	12
Disciplining Volunteers	13
SECTION 6: MAINTAINING INTEREST AND INVOLVEMENT	14
SECTION 7: POTENTIAL PROBLEMS	16
Police, Unions and Volunteers	16
SECTION 9: POLICE-DIRECTED VS EMPOWERED VOLUNTEERISM	18
Can the Police Delegate Some of Their Authority?	18
Should the Police Delegate Some Their Authority?	19
SECTION 10: VOLUNTEERS AS PROBLEM-SOLVERS	22
REFERENCES	23

Section 1:

Introduction

The intent of this manual is to discuss the various elements of the volunteer's role and relate them to the concept of partnership which is essential to community policing. Three models of citizen participation exist within the policing community and are currently in practice within Canada.

1. A police-directed role in which volunteers carry out strategies designed by the police (e.g. reserve or auxiliary programs, some community police station programs and some Neighbourhood Watch programs).
2. A community-directed role in which the police serve as a resource (e.g. Block Parent programs, some victim services initiatives and community crime prevention councils).
3. A community/police partnership in which both groups define the citizen's role based on the problems being addressed and the resources available to each group. The citizen is an active participant, not only in the identification of the problem, but also in strategy development and problem resolution (e.g. Citizen Advisory Boards, some Neighbourhood Watch programs, Safer City and Crime Concern Networks and some Community Police Station programs).

The role of the volunteer will be discussed under several broad headings, including:

- . Strategies for Using Volunteers
- . Who is the Volunteer?
- . Selection and Training
- . Supervision
- . Sustaining Interest and Involvement
- . Utilizing the Skills of Volunteers
- . Potential Problems
- . Police-directed vs. Empowered Volunteerism
- . Volunteers as Problem-Solvers.

Section 2:

Strategies for Using Volunteers

Volunteer initiatives can be placed into four categories: advisory-based, activity-based, support-based and crime prevention-based.

Advisory - Based

The newest form of volunteer involvement has been in an advisory role. Committees are established to advise police on the crime control and prevention needs of a specific community. They are composed of representatives from business, social agencies, citizen groups and political interests within an area.

In larger metropolitan areas, groups of a similar nature join together to form a network. Often the advice offered by such committees resulted in new policy or strategies for the delivery of police service to the community.

Activity - Based

In this model, volunteers are canvassed from those individuals who have a vested interest in the achievement of certain objectives. Such special interest groups might include Neighbourhood Watch, Marine Watch, Block Parents or Business Watch. In a number of situations, programs emerged when certain citizens found themselves victimized and wanted to prevent a recurrence. Such programs operate on the premise that protection of one's own interests (i.e. property or personal safety) is a strong motivator.

Support - Based

The third category involves those programs which are supportive of the activities of a particular agency or group. Most often this refers to initiatives established by police agencies such as Auxiliary and Reserve programs, but can include Boy Scout Venturers, Victim Service Assistance, Crime Watch and Crimestoppers. Volunteers in these programs are given training and are then assigned to set responsibilities on a regular shift.

Crime Prevention-Based

These initiatives are either police- or community-directed and address a variety of crime control and crime prevention issues relevant to each specific community. Volunteers work directly in the design and delivery of programs, reporting to either a governing Board or to the police department responsible. In most cases, the needs of the community dictate the services to be offered.

Section 3:

Who is the Volunteer?

Recruiting the Volunteer

The sources of volunteers are broad and diverse. For some, volunteer work for a police department might be the first step toward a career in that profession. Others have jobs and lifestyles outside of policing but have as their personal goals community service and public safety.

In selecting volunteers, it is important to match volunteers to the specific goal of the program. For example, in staffing a Crimestopper program which pays for tips which may lead to arrests, it is important to have volunteers who have connections in the business community and are able to fundraise.

Some programs attracted volunteers who had a vested interest in a certain program. A Block Parent program, for example, would attract the parents of young children.

There are a number of readily identifiable pools of potential volunteers. These include:

- students who can add to their experience, learn skills or meet course requirements by doing volunteer work;
- retirees who wish to fill their time with activities related to their former occupation;
- unemployed workers who have extra time available or are using their time to experience other careers to help determine if a career shift is warranted.
- senior citizens who have reduced responsibilities at home and find that volunteering gives an added dimension to their weekly routine.
- employed citizens who volunteer out of interest and wish to do something meaningful for their community;
- clubs and organizations whose mandate is to provide a community service. These groups are usually identifiable through the Yellow Pages or through their connection with a referral centre in the area (e.g. a Volunteer Bureau).

Some volunteer groups exist simply because of a common interest of the membership (e.g. Crime Prevention Advisory Boards, made up of representatives from local agencies, public services, local politicians and citizen groups).

Finally, a large number of volunteers currently active within community policing initiatives are attracted to the service by means of the following strategies:

- media stories about the program;
- locating program facilities in public areas;
- word-of-mouth recommendations by other volunteers;
- public displays in malls or shopping centres manned by volunteers and police officers;
- satisfied recipients of the services offered by the program who want to reciprocate.

Qualities of the Volunteer

Since volunteers work with women and children and may have access to confidential documents, a background security check is in order.

Volunteers are needed who will demonstrate the following four qualities:

- a strong interest in helping their community;
- a commitment to give a certain number of hours to the program;
- a willingness to participate in a volunteer training program; and,
- a readiness to work with the police.

It is essential that individuals selecting volunteers clearly establish the needs of the program and the role of volunteers. Such criteria must be flexible as programs change and develop to meet the needs of the community.

What Volunteers Expect

Every effort should be made to ensure that potential volunteers understand the program and its purpose. A volunteer's expectations are linked to his/her understanding of the program. Confusion can lead to dissatisfaction when the job does not live up to the volunteer's mistaken expectations.

A good percentage of volunteers participate in order to meet new people and have no desire to become involved in specific crime prevention programs or in crime analysis. The problem-related tasks can be left to other volunteers who want to participate in such activities.

Age and Volunteering

In deciding whether to establish an age range for a program, consideration should be given to a distribution of age groupings which represent a specific community. These figures can be found in census data available from the local municipal hall. Certain age groups can be more effective in dealing with other age groups. Their representation is vital to the outcome of the program.

Section 4:

Selection and Training

The Selection Process

Careful consideration should be given to developing a strategy for interviewing volunteers since it is important to match the correct volunteer with the particular program. A skilled interviewer will not only share information about the program but will also ask questions which would address the needs of both the program and the volunteer.

The selection of volunteers is a two-phase process. An initial **written application form** allows for a security check to be carried out and indicates whether the applicant meets the basic selection criteria of the program. This is followed by a **personal interview** which is informative and provides the applicant with the opportunity to ask and respond to questions. The purpose and objectives of the program should be outlined in detail and if possible, brochures or pamphlets describing the program should be given to the prospective volunteer. If a video about the program exists, this could be shown to the applicant before the interview. Key issues to address in the interview include motivation, commitment, expectations, skills and background experience.

Motivation

The interviewer should focus on the applicant's reasons for volunteering and identify those things in a work environment which maintain his/her interest and involvement.

Commitment

It is important to determine the amount of time a volunteer is prepared to give to the program on a regular basis. In some cases, it has proven beneficial to have volunteers sign a work commitment based on a negotiated arrangement. This allows for some stability in staffing patterns over the short and long term.

Expectations

The expectations of both the program and the volunteer should be discussed. There should be flexibility on both sides when it comes to addressing conflicting expectations.

Skills

Many police-directed programs select volunteers without inquiring about the variety of skills that person might bring to the program. Such skills could be utilized by the program at a future date.

Background Experience

Information concerning an applicant's background experience is useful in determining the suitability of the volunteer and in assessing what roles he/she might play in the program. Experience, however, should not be a prerequisite for the volunteer.

Who Should Select ?

The selection of volunteers is best carried out by persons directly involved in the particular community policing program. In police-directed initiatives, an officer assigned to the program selects new volunteers. Recently, however, a number of police agencies have begun to delegate this responsibility to volunteers with supervisory experience and long service. This process requires close consultation between police and citizen participants to ensure that the task of the volunteer recruiter is clearly defined. This includes:

- defining the new volunteer's duties, commitments, goals and objectives and explaining the lines of authority;
- identifying the volunteer's personal expectations and his or her understanding of the program goals;
- ensuring that the support services needed in the selection process are in place, e.g. background checks;
- listing those qualities which would be undesirable in a new volunteer;
- ensuring that the volunteer recruiter is familiar with all aspects of the program and clearly understands its goals and objectives.

It is essential that the volunteer recruitment role be well-defined and structured. If a program is to be truly community-based, the volunteers recruited must reflect the characteristics of the whole community and represent all its needs, rather than those of a particular group.

Training

Community policing programs to date include volunteer training, with variations in the length of training, the levels of training available and the frequency with which training was offered. Programs can be placed in three categories:

Basic or Recruit Training

This elementary program can vary in length from one session (as is common with Block Parent and Neighbourhood Watch programs) to programs of up to 20 weeks or more (common to police auxiliary training) where volunteers attend sessions once or twice a week. Attendance is stressed and in some cases repeated absenteeism will result in dropping the volunteer from the program.

Advanced Training

Some programs have implemented annual advanced training courses to enable the volunteer to carry out more complicated tasks. For example, the Vancouver police force's Victim Assistance Program has a mobile unit staffed by highly trained volunteers which attends crime scenes along with regular police response vehicles.

Topical Training

As new issues arise in the community, volunteers should be encouraged to set up sessions for informing their colleagues and police personnel about the topic. Police supervisors can assist this process by encouragement and by identifying resources whom the volunteers can access.

Training programs should be offered at times which are convenient to the schedules and lifestyles of the volunteers. This might mean offering daytime classes for senior citizens and evening courses to accommodate individuals who work or attend school.

In cases where volunteers start work without training, a well-structured orientation will provide them with sufficient knowledge and skills to carry out their duties. Volunteer-mentors should be assigned who will ensure that volunteers receive the necessary information, support and program resource materials. An orientation manual compiled by current volunteers would serve as an excellent resource for the new recruit.

Such a manual might include:

- the goals and objectives of the program;
- copies of all program brochures;
- sample forms routinely completed by volunteers, including an explanation of the information required;
- an explanation of the program's reporting structure;
- a list of all program resource individuals, including telephone numbers;
- a list of regular volunteer duties;
- descriptions of program services and the names of those volunteers directly responsible for them; and
- several case scenarios typical of the work environment, with examples of a required plan of action (e.g. examples of occurrence reports completed for each case; possible alternative strategies encountered when making referrals to other agencies; proper computer data entry procedures).

It is useful to hold a follow-up workshop in which volunteers can discuss the details of the manual. Such discussions demonstrate to program organizers the volunteers' understanding of the program.

How Trained is Well Trained?

Some volunteer programs, such as Auxiliary and Citizen Crime Patrol, have very structured requirements, requiring very standardized training. Modifications to those standards would simply reflect changes which have arisen in the normal course of program development.

Other programs, however, such as Community Stations and Crime Concern, are as fluid as the society they serve and require frequent upgrading to meet changing needs. In these programs training must be an on-going, dynamic process. Trainers should be aware of seminars or workshops available in their area which volunteers could attend. Volunteers could then return to the program and report on what they learned and how

that knowledge might assist in the delivery of service. Attendance fees are often waived for participants who represent volunteer-based programs.

Finally, it should be noted that in addition to attending lectures, effective training should include the opportunity to practise new skills such as filling out forms, role-playing, responding to simulated scenarios and report writing.

Section 5:

Supervision

Supervision and the discussion of work performance with volunteers is often a concern for paid employees. It can be perceived as a risk, resulting in the loss of the volunteer should the performance feedback be viewed as unacceptable.

However, volunteers engage in their work for the satisfaction that it brings. They enjoy the praise that accompanies a job well-done and are willing to learn from their mistakes if correction is made in a supportive manner. In addition, they appreciate the opportunity to make suggestions on how a task can be improved and want to take part in the implementation of suggestions. Open lines of communication make the sharing of constructive criticism a learning, rather than a threatening experience.

In most cases, responsibility for supervising the volunteers' performance rests with sworn staff assigned to the task by their superiors. Some community-directed programs include a core of paid civilian staff who run the program and see to the overall selection and supervision of volunteers. This has become common practice with victim service units where funding is used to hire civilian coordinators.

A practice has emerged within some community policing programs to give experienced volunteers responsibility for supervising their co-workers. This has occurred in situations where, for example, a program relied almost totally on the efforts of volunteers.

Similarly, programs such as Block Parents or Neighbourhood Watch receive virtually no direct leadership from the police. Instead, the programs are designed to include a coordinating role for a small number of volunteers.

Volunteers Supervising Volunteers

In the absence of rank or salary to distinguish one individual from another, volunteers see themselves as equals. This can lead to difficulties when one volunteer is assigned the duty of supervising another. A number of strategies can be successful in circumventing the problem, such as the use of annual elections within the core of the volunteers to select supervisors. The development of the position of senior volunteer is another option, whereby the volunteer is given the responsibility of working with other volunteers in an educational-mentor role. Seniority is based on an individual's demonstrated ability and training within the program.

In some instances, volunteers can be assigned specialized tasks, in addition to the regular volunteer duties on each shift. Program coordinators can make a number of volunteers responsible for a specific task while still participating in the regular routine of their shift.

This enables both the specialist and generalist role to be shared among the various volunteers, eliminating to some extent the conflict which might have arisen from one individual being given more responsibility than another. This strategy could also create a friendly competition between volunteers who try to ensure that their performance complements that of their co-workers.

The role does not come without risks and when problems arise they should be handled promptly. Volunteer supervisors should not be assigned tasks which give them complete authority over other volunteers. In addition, it is questionable whether volunteer supervisors should have the authority to dismiss a volunteer. Both of these tasks require support or direction from program coordinators and should be based on established program policy.

Assessment of Volunteers

Formal Practices

Traditional methods may be used for assessing volunteer effectiveness. Assessment forms can be designed which address skills and qualities required in the job and these are placed in the volunteer's personnel file. The frequency of these reports vary from one program to another.

Informal Practices

Informal assessments tend not to be documented and usually occur on a one-to-one basis between the volunteer and the supervisor. Comments are usually based on specific observation of the volunteer's performance at a task or during a shift. The intent of these assessments is to point out the strengths and weaknesses of an individual's performance.

Common sense suggests that the opportunity for structured feedback on a volunteer's performance should be built into a community policing program. This process can provide positive reinforcement to the volunteer and serve as a motivator for continued participation and perhaps even greater involvement.

Disciplining Volunteers

Despite the use of a careful volunteer selection process, discipline problems can occur. It is important to keep in mind that the commitment of volunteers is different from that of paid employees. Politeness and suggestion may have a far greater impact over the long-term than abruptness or officiousness.

Volunteers, for the most part, are quite motivated about their participation and are usually more critical of their own performance than are others.

Abuses of policy and practice, however, should be addressed and if immediate suspension or dismissal is warranted then that should occur. Procedures should be established for dealing with such abuses in as constructive a fashion as possible.

Section 6:

Maintaining Interest and Involvement

It is essential that a volunteer program continue to attract and maintain volunteer participation. The more a program can sustain the involvement of its citizenry, the more continuity in delivery of service can be maintained. The continued interest and involvement of volunteers could be traced to such factors as: a sense of personal satisfaction; pride in accomplishments; respect and appreciation from others; a feeling of engaging in something worthwhile and the challenge of solving problems. The feelings generated by these factors have enormous sustaining power in themselves and as long as the role continues to energize them, volunteers will more than likely remain active in the program.

The goals of a program itself can often motivate volunteers. For example, the appeal from citizens in many American urban centers to reclaim their streets from criminals has energized many volunteers. As with many programs arising out of a cause, however, many people lose the drive to continue once the job is done.

Community policing programs require a collective momentum between police and citizens to ensure the sustaining value of both the program and those involved. This avoids a situation in which one group carries the bulk of the work, which can result in frustration and the loss of interest by volunteers and paid personnel.

A wide variety of tactics can be employed by community policing programs to ensure the continued interest and involvement by volunteers. The choice of strategies depend on the needs and characteristics of the program and its volunteers. These tactics have been grouped under the following headings.

Personal Feedback

This requires the maintenance of on-going communication between volunteers and program coordinators. In this manner, personal accomplishments are recognized, new ideas are promoted, problems are discussed and creativity is encouraged.

High Productivity

Most police-directed programs operate under the direct leadership of the officers involved. Much of the work done by volunteers is the result of assignments generated from the department. Results from interviews and volunteer surveys indicate that in these environments, motivation and interest are related to the amount and type of work to be done. High productivity can be expected and

volunteers are encouraged to continue, expanding the scope of the program's impact within the community.

Impact Feedback

Some initiatives make a point of reporting the extent of the impact of volunteer-run programs. In-house newsletters, progress reports, simple statistical analyses and news releases can be used to this end.

Tangible Recognition

A common practice with many programs is the use of gifts and events, such as Christmas dances, picnics, barbecues and awards banquets to recognize the contribution of volunteers. Pins, plaques and certificates can be with arrangements made with local suppliers to provide souvenir items with the program logo at reduced costs. These often serve as symbols of participation which reinforce the volunteers' pride in belonging.

Operational Tactics

Some tactics can be built into the program which encourage participation. A guest speaker's forum can be included in regularly scheduled volunteer meetings. Representatives of other community agencies can be asked to sit on a Board of Advisors. This assures a continuous membership since most representatives see this as part of their regular job. Volunteers can sometimes be asked to organize staff meetings, including the setting of the agenda and contacting resource speakers.

Section 7:

Potential Problems

Police, Unions and Volunteers

Policing has often been described as a unique sub-culture which allows outsiders only a limited view of what goes on inside its boundaries. The mere presence of volunteers can be seen as a threat to job security by many police unions. Resistance from this group quickly follows any decision to introduce un-paid personnel into the force. Union officials cite the potential loss of jobs or a delay in increasing departmental strength as reasons for resisting the change.

The right to access information often defines the acceptability of the individual. In situations where volunteer positions have been re-classified to paid appointments, the incumbents quickly find themselves more accepted and involved in various departmental aspects than in their previous volunteer capacity.

In most cases, senior police administrators must work cautiously and creatively to alleviate these concerns and must be able to convince the opponents to give the program a trial run. This may mean assuring the union that the program would not interfere with the legal and professional aspects of the job.

Territoriality and perceived threats to job security may not be restricted to police unions. Unions representing civilian employees could also be concerned about the impact of volunteers. These groups may not necessarily see this as a direct threat to existing jobs, but as a means for not hiring new civilian staff.

While there are circumstances in which it may be necessary to maintain security, there are many areas where volunteers could be considered assets. For example, most police departments generate incident summaries each month. These could be readily analysed by volunteers to identify recurring problem locations, along with plotting crime trends and analyzing neighbourhood differences. This data usually indicates only the incident location and rarely gives suspect names. Volunteers could also become responsible for filling out certain reports where information is not considered confidential.

In some reports, the information required follows a fairly standard set of questions which require limited interpretation, but are nevertheless time-consuming. Instances such as these warrant the assistance of volunteers. Service efficiency warrants the assistance by volunteers, thereby freeing police officers for duties which require their expertise.

In addition to job security, the issue of liability should be addressed. Liability protection should be included in any volunteer-based initiative. Agencies and governments should

stand behind these programs and be ready to accept responsibility. This requires that the volunteer be properly trained, given the necessary tools and support to carry out the role and that proper supervision be available.

Section 9:

Police-directed vs Empowered Volunteerism

A crucial question to ask regarding community policing programs is, how far are the police willing to go to share their authority with the citizen? At first glance, the answer would appear to be not very far at all. Programs and committees which are police-directed, had the idea of volunteers originate from within the force and develop under direct police leadership. This would seem appropriate to many citizens who view crime control, safety and crime prevention as police business. Therefore, to expect community policing programs to be police-directed would not be unreasonable.

Unfortunately, such programs run the risk of being not only police-directed but police-dominated in their objectives, impact and membership. Volunteers are permitted to perform only those tasks generated by the police. Volunteers may have little work to perform while on shift and this may result in an eventual loss of volunteers.

Such a dependent relationship is unnecessary and occurs because of a lack of training in developing volunteer independence and creative thinking. It is also symptomatic of a limited understanding of community policing principles by those responsible for the program.

There are two issues to be addressed in the question of volunteer empowerment. First, whether the police are able to delegate some of their authority in light of their traditional role and secondly, whether they should be expected to do this.

Can the Police Delegate Some of Their Authority?

It is important in this discussion to distinguish between legal power and service-delivery power. Legal power is recognized as being that authority designated by statute which resides solely with sworn personnel. This authority, or police expertise, cannot be shared or delegated without a change in the law.

However, the sharing of service-delivery power is entirely feasible and certainly within the realm of every police force. It is in this area that community policing partnerships meet their greatest challenges.

Community policing requires that citizens and police recognize their individual and joint responsibilities in the control and prevention of crime. Police must also recognize that their concerns may differ from those of the community and that the public can play a role in identifying a problem and designing and implementing its solution. Furthermore, it requires that the police on occasion be prepared to play a secondary role in the delivery

of services. In this respect, the police become a resource to the public, called upon for those specific skills and expertise they can bring to the task.

The empowerment of volunteers focuses on service-delivery issues which vary according to the agency and the needs of the community. In situations where change does not occur, it may very well be because the police feel that their authority is being threatened.

Resistance comes in various forms. Police must be willing to explore how community policing will change the traditional role of law enforcement. All staff within a department must understand the philosophy and be shown how such concepts can be translated into action plans involving both the citizens and the agency.

Should the Police Delegate Some Their Authority?

It is generally recognized that crime control and crime prevention are beyond the capacity of most police departments and annual increases in person-power are a luxury of the past. Under these circumstances, the community policing partnership makes good sense. Unfortunately, there are still many police officers who believe that the agency can do the job alone. Others only involve the community in solving a specific problem which has been identified by the police.

A meaningful and functional community policing partnership demands that both parties exert leadership and co-operation. The goal is the overall good of society in which both groups have a vested interest.

Sir Robert Peel's "Principles of Policing" reinforce this partnership and the dual commitment of both groups to the good of society. The only difference is that, as he put it, the police are paid, thereby ensuring a certain level of stability, continuity and accountability. The fact that police are paid and trained, however, has generated problems which inhibit the constructive development of a partnership. Police should be prepared to empower citizens as a part of the common goals of community policing. Such empowerment would not entail relinquishing or modifying any statutory powers, over which the police have little direct control.

Empowering the volunteer entails several distinct tasks:

1. Ensuring that volunteers have appropriate channels for communicating their ideas, concerns and questions.
2. Allowing volunteers to access information related to specific tasks. It must be recognized, however, that some information must remain confidential.
3. Recognizing that community policing is **problem-driven**, not **incident-driven**. Repeated incidents are collectively symptoms of a much larger issue that must be addressed.
4. Identifying the various skills of volunteers with a view of utilizing those abilities in problem identification and resolution.
5. Recognizing that in many societal problems, crime is only one symptom and that the police are simply **one** resource to access, as solutions are identified and implemented.
6. Allowing leadership in community policing programs to be taken by volunteers with the police serving as a resource to assist when required.
7. Educating the entire police agency on the philosophy of community policing, with emphasis on the role of volunteers and the elements that constitute a workable partnership.
8. Empowering front-line constables who are in direct contact with volunteers, to represent the agency in both their decisions and their support.
9. Recognizing that problems perceived by the police are not always the same as those perceived by the community.
10. Utilizing every avenue possible to access community participation in problem identification and resolution.
11. Legitimizing the efforts of volunteers through support, recognition, co-operation and responding when assistance is required.
12. Assisting volunteers by educating them in the operation of the agency and the extent to which their freedom to act is governed by statutory limitations.

With volunteer empowerment comes the sense of developing community within the partnership. By developing each other's ideas in an atmosphere of mutual respect, group confidence can be built. The partnership becomes a community in itself, bound together by shared experiences, purposes and productivity.

Section 10:

Volunteers as Problem-Solvers

The goal of this final section of this manual is to describe the extent of the role of volunteers as problem-solvers. Throughout this manual it has been emphasized that volunteers need to play a much greater role in community policing initiatives. Some volunteer involvement is predicated by the task, such as in programs as Block Parent and Neighbourhood Watch. Other roles are dictated by the position and the tasks assigned to that position. Newer initiatives tend to define the volunteers' role based upon the problems identified by the program.

This manual has identified three components of the role of volunteers: **problem identification, solution development and solution delivery**. Various community policing initiatives rely upon the volunteer to point out crime-related problems which need attention. This is done in a variety of ways including surveys, crime analysis, environmental scanning, public forums and interviews. In some instances, volunteers contact citizens in their geographic area to identify their concerns and fears. In other situations, the police identify growing crime concerns and ask volunteers to do further research. In each of these approaches, volunteers take the lead role in defining the scope of a problem.

Having defined the problem, volunteers play a leadership role in designing the solution. Since solutions are often complex, much of the volunteer's role entails working with the police, other agencies and fellow volunteers to form a plan of action. This provides an opportunity for volunteer skills and experience to be utilized to the fullest. Such resources should be viewed as important assets to any community policing program.

Essential to the success of any proposed solution is the opportunity for volunteers to follow through with implementation of the solution. This enables participants to observe first-hand the impact of their ideas as well as any weaknesses in the strategy which might require adjustment. Such experience can give volunteers insight into the complexity of social problems and can lead to other forms of citizen action such as political lobbying.

Neither the police nor community groups should ever under-estimate the capacity of volunteers to play major roles in achieving the specific program goals. There will always be individuals who are content to carry out routine tasks and they will receive satisfaction from that. However, many volunteers want the opportunity to become involved beyond the routine tasks and be prepared to use their various skills to make a difference. Agencies which fail to mobilize those resources are limiting the potential of their program.

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COMMUNITY POLICING

Shaping the Future

COMMUNITY CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEES



Ministry of the
Solicitor General and
Correctional Services

Community Consultative Committees

Ministry of the Solicitor General
and Correctional Services of Ontario
and
Ministry of the Solicitor General
of Canada

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Preface

Community Consultative Committees was prepared under contract for the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada by Richard Weiler of Richard Weiler and Associates, Ottawa, Ontario.

This report is part of a series of manuals on community policing produced jointly by the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Correctional Services of Ontario and the Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada. The objective of the series is to provide information on the implementation of community policing, focusing on planning, management processes, training and operational strategies. These reports are designed for use by all members of the police services, police services boards, community groups, students of policing/criminology, educational facilities, police college instructors, and government officials.

*Barry Leighton & Marsha Mitzak
Series Editors*

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Table of Contents

SECTION 1: THE ORIGINS OF COMMUNITY CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEES . . .	1
Historical Roots	1
SECTION 2: ORGANIZATIONAL MODELS	3
Police Consultative Committees	3
Multi-Functional Committees	3
Aboriginal Consultative Committees	4
SECTION 3: STRUCTURES, ROLES AND ISSUES	7
Structure	7
Roles	9
Issues	13
Public Accountability	14
SECTION 4: WHERE TO FROM HERE?	18
Reasons for Success	18
Barriers to Development	19
Overcoming Barriers	20
Conclusion	23

Section 1:

The Origins of Community Consultative Committees

Community policing has become the predominant philosophical force behind various changes in most major police services across Canada in recent years. The philosophy emphasizes a shift in the respective roles of the police and the public and encourages a strong partnership between police and the community. Police and public work together to identify and prioritize local crime and disorder problems, and come up with appropriate solutions. Community consultative mechanisms are the most common means of realizing this partnership. Considerable effort has been devoted to developing and maintaining these committees across Canada but there is a lack of information designed to assist people in establishing such committees.

This manual is an effort to fill the information gap. It furnishes the historical context in which these committees have developed. It summarizes patterns in the evolution of consultative committees, most of which have emerged within the past four years. Finally we review challenges that can arise in setting up the committees and suggest ways to achieve success. The manual is based on relevant reports, committee minutes, discussions with community police experts and with many of the people who have developed and maintained over 150 consultative committees established by police organizations across Canada.

Historical Roots

Community consultative groups (CCGs) are the product of several trends of the past two decades. This historical background often forms a basis for community acceptance of CCGs. It also provides local resources and experience that can be put to use in developing CCGs. Through community-based planning, Canadians have demonstrated commitment to addressing complex socio-legal matters. This commitment has been evident in the following:

The development of formal consultative mechanisms

These mechanisms have typically involved representatives of the public and of concerned agencies in planning and coordinating community programs in health, social welfare and justice. District health councils, social planning councils, and crime prevention councils are examples of these efforts. Community-based inter-agency committees concerned with specific problems such as young offenders, substance abuse and family violence are also common.

The development of healthy community projects

In many communities, urban planners, health professionals, recreation organizers, social service and housing officials, police and others participate in seeking comprehensive solutions to major urban problems. "Healthy" is defined in a broad manner to include the impact of violence and other matters influencing the quality of our lives. Many projects address priorities shared by the police, such as violence against women, vandalism, substance abuse and family violence. The community initiatives are collaborative efforts that usually include the police in dealing with issues.

Crime prevention

Canadians have expanded their understanding of crime prevention since the early 1960s. At that time most efforts were directed to deterring offenders. Growing awareness of limitations to this approach led to efforts in the 1970s to stem crime through urban planning and architectural innovations. Buildings and living spaces were designed so that normal surveillance, casual barriers and knowledge of neighbours would reduce crime. Voluntary organizations such as Block Parents and Neighbourhood Watch were formed to lessen the opportunities for crime. People were encouraged to protect themselves by installing burglar alarms, making it difficult to enter their property and taking other steps.

Emphasis has shifted recently to **social development** initiatives such as targeting social housing, social services, and education to socially and economically disadvantaged risk groups who experience personal, familial or community problems. This approach stresses prevention of a broad range of chronic criminal behaviour, the source of most crimes in society.

More and more Canadian communities are embracing a holistic approach to preventing crimes in the short and long term, through a mix of the strategies described above designed to meet specific requirements. It is known generally as the "**safer community**" approach. Programs are often undertaken by community networks of leaders from the police, municipal governments and service organizations concerned with both social and criminal justice. These are the types of networks that often share the priorities of CCGs. Other community crime prevention efforts are planned and coordinated by community initiated councils and committees, many of them established by the RCMP. Such committees assist in the planning process and development of strategies and programs intended to effectively deal with crime prevention needs. They provide a direct link to various community networks and support groups. They provide a coordinating role in seeking solutions to crime problems of concern to the community. Membership involved not only representatives of crime prevention organizations but also of municipal governments, business, victims, ethnic and aboriginal and other minority groups. These committees have often acted as forerunners to CCG's.

Section 2:

Organizational Models

This section examines three organizational models that represent distinctive ways consultative committees are evolving in Canada. They show what types of structures can be used to put community policing into action.

Police Consultative Committees

Police consultative committees have been the most common structure established by the police. Their prevalence is a result of the preference of police forces like the RCMP for this basic type of committee. These committees can serve areas of different sizes including one or more small communities, a neighbourhood, a police-defined "zone" or an entire city area. Their role is limited to advising police on local concerns and problems.

Police representatives usually lead the group, initiating many of the programs deemed necessary by committee members. Public members usually depend upon the police representatives for assistance and information. This dependence can lead committee members to lose interest if they see their roles as limited.

Police consultative committees can also face other challenges as they attempt to develop community responsibility. How do they become credible agents within the community and address issues of concern to other organizations (e.g. substance abuse)? How do members maintain their enthusiasm for continued participation unless the committee evolves beyond its advisory role? This last question is especially significant in communities where crime is not a major concern and support for police services is good.

Multi-Functional Committees

The most active committees have several roles, in addition to meeting the consultative expectations of the police. These responsibilities can include program development and implementation, interagency coordination and networking and fund-raising. Some multi-functional committees evolve from a conventional consultative committee. Others emerge from a crime prevention mandate. These committees may resemble police consultative committees in membership and operations, but their roles are more sophisticated.

Responsibilities are usually established by members themselves rather than by the police. Members are expected to be self-reliant and strong leadership from the public members is critical.

The police might start out by launching and leading such a committee but shift to participating as partners. Thus responsibilities like coordination, administration and consultation are often transferred from the police to other committee members.

Multi-functional committees consider themselves accountable not only to the police, but also to their community. Over time they depend less on the police for their continued existence while expanding their interests. Some committees take creative and effective steps to assess community concerns and mobilize collaborative community action in response. The following examples illustrate a diversity of functions:

- In a small rural community, a committee addressed the extent and consequences of family violence. It instructed the police to be more effective and efficient law enforcers in this area. The committee received the commitment of "Block Parent" members to provide shelter and other emergency needs for victims. The lack of services in the community prompted organizations to cooperate and share resources.
- A committee in a large urban community determined that the appropriate response to youth delinquency in one area of a city was to develop recreational programs. It collaborated on public education and advocacy campaigns with the municipality to develop the programs. This process resulted in broad community commitment to assist in addressing youth problems.
- Several committees are engaged in fundraising campaigns to develop crime prevention programs ranging from conventional opportunity reduction (e.g. neighbourhood watch) to measures to address the social causes of crime (e.g. supporting recreation programs for young persons at risk).
- Some committees embark on public awareness programs to "clean up the neighbourhood." These initiatives address both environmental and crime prevention objectives by creating a sense of community pride.

Aboriginal Consultative Committees

Aboriginal communities, by and large, have not been keen on following outside directives to establish consultative committees for community policing. Nonetheless there have been some successes. These are usually closely tied to the Band political or clan structure. Responsibility for committee activities and community accountability often

resides with the formal political leadership, although it may not be reflected through direct political representation on the committee. Successful committees often define their mandate to encompass the formal justice system including corrections, courts and law enforcement. Frequently, the committees also consider informal means for dispute resolution in the community. Committees often assume responsibility on behalf of their community in assessing police policies, practices and organizations. This process has included questioning the conduct of police officers in their communities.

Many aboriginal communities have introduced formal consultative mechanisms that, although not identified as police consultative committees, meet most of the key objectives. Some of these consultative mechanisms were introduced by aboriginal leaders, others by judges or judicial officials, still others by police officers, especially by the RCMP. Most tend to include (if only as observers) community leaders and officials from the judicial and law enforcement systems. These consultative initiatives often include individuals selected by the community such as elders dealing with justice issues or concerned citizens involved in considering sentencing options for offenders. The formalized processes often have as their primary purpose matters that go beyond community policing concerns. Some focus specifically on developing and carrying out various justice functions, such as sentencing and diversion. Others study and develop comprehensive aboriginal justice systems for their communities. Some consultative groups give serious consideration to prospects for developing community policing services in response to federal aboriginal policing policies.

These formal mechanisms for community consultation often fulfil the criteria and objectives of police consultative committees. They surmount many of the barriers encountered in unsuccessful attempts to develop police consultative committees. Membership is usually representative and steps are taken to develop community policing representatives as an integral part of the community's overall vision of justice. These processes are community driven rather than imposed from outside. They are often linked to aboriginal justice initiatives supported by both the community and governments. Community leaders support the consultative mechanisms through their own participation despite being over burdened with such concerns as constitutional reform, land title issues and service devolution. The mechanisms function in ways that answers the expectations of community members for payment for services, and the acknowledgement and support of the community. They usually avoid duplication of community effort. Finally, they reflect a commitment to creating justice services that are sensitive to aboriginal culture.

Recognizing these types of formal consultative mechanisms as means of realizing the objectives of consultative committees should not inhibit ongoing support for maintaining successful consultative committees in aboriginal communities nor continued efforts to introduce these committees--now or in the future when appropriate.

Conclusion

As the formal mechanisms for community consultation mature, a pattern is emerging of the successful examples. Regardless of their origin, most tend to assume greater responsibility for the ongoing operations of the committee. They become more accountable to the community and accept the police as one of the community consultative group partners--not simply in advising the police but in actually planning community policing. They can go on to acquire several areas of responsibility--including advising the police. Although public participation in problem-solving activities figures largely, most communities still focus on crime prevention and accessibility of police services.

Section 3:

Structures, Roles and Issues

In this section, we combine a summary of common factors among consultative committees across Canada with "how to" suggestions for encouraging successful committees.

Structure

I. Committee Membership

Although approaches to developing membership for CCGs differ, some common criteria are evident.

- **Membership should represent the community in terms of age, ethnicity, gender and socio-economic status**

There should be members with formal leadership positions that represent key community organizations such as service clubs, labour and employer organizations, social agencies and others. Informal leaders such as a local minister might also be members. Other individuals may reflect various community interests such as those of older residents. Committees can also include persons with specific professional skills, like urban and social planning or public relations. Community respect, objectivity, law abiding behaviour and support for the community policing philosophy are all obvious and useful qualities.

Identifying the final membership can pose difficult questions. Who best represents an interest? Should representatives of advocacy organizations representing ethnic aboriginal or other minority interests be chosen? Which groups have demonstrated active interest in crime related issues? Who are the most vulnerable victims in the community? There is considerable debate about whether membership should include local politicians. Those supporting their inclusion argue that they can make the committee more aware of the local political situation, improve the visibility of the committee's activities, and help ensure that the committee's agenda is addressed by local governments and others. This support can be provided without having to influence the committees' activities with one's "political agenda". Those opposed argue that politicians can create a conflict of interest for the committee and the police, given police accountability to council members. Opponents believe local politicians may introduce inappropriate local political agendas to the work of the committee. An alternative to formal membership of local politicians on committees is

involvement as observers and as liaison agents between the committee and local council.

- **The committee should be a manageable size and able to work as a group.**

Most effective committees have seven to 12 members. Larger groups are perhaps more representative but require considerable support. They can be too unwieldy to operate effectively. A large committee should ensure that sub-committees and task groups deal with specific interests. Effective participation should mean more than talking in meetings. Smaller groups or individuals need to be assigned responsibilities in areas such as administration or research on specific issues. It is worthwhile to pay attention to different points of view, since members have not necessarily chosen to work together. A successful committee will ensure that members' views and contributions are recognized and valued. Competitive participation that fosters a win or lose environment is not helpful.

- **Encourage committees to devise a public and objective means of identifying and selecting members.**

Initially the identification and selection of committee membership is often left to the police. However, committees usually adopt some means of choosing the next round. Some advertise for members, others request nominations from community groups, still others seek candidates from crime prevention groups or other community programs.

- **Committees need appropriate renewal membership policies.**

Opinions differ regarding length of membership. Some have adopted a pre-determined length of time--usually two years. These limits were set by the committee or by the police policy that established the committee. The two-year term was chosen by many police services for the following reasons: the need to respect a volunteer's commitment, the need to rejuvenate committee membership and ideas, and expectations of limited ongoing responsibilities. However, most successful committees now state that a two-year commitment is neither adequate nor desired by members. They believe this short term does not match the time frames for membership in similar community organizations. Some committees are still in the process of determining reasonable membership commitments, exploring how to ensure representivity, and how to guarantee continuity in the early stages.

Roles

I. Police Roles in the Committee

- **Ensure that leadership and administrative responsibilities are transferred to community members as quickly as possible.**

Police officers usually assume the initial position of chairperson and responsibility for coordination, administration, training, research, follow-up and organization. Where appropriate, these responsibilities should be shared with, or transferred to, community members. This will permit more effective participation and underline the police role as a partner in the CCG.

- **Police representatives should avoid roles as "all purpose" consultants to the committee.**

A frequent challenge for officers is handling expectations that they will act in a "consultative support role." It can lead to the investigation of issues unrelated to policing concerns. The diversity of issues can range from health, social services, housing and recreation to zoning by laws, transportation, and land and forest concerns. The scope of enquiries can require considerable consultative skills on the part of police.

Committees can come to depend on the efforts of the police. The consulting can require extensive expertise and time, neither of which the officer may possess. Consulting can also create difficulties for the police in maintaining their capacity to advocate change in other organizations on behalf of the committee.

Committees can avoid overdependency on police representatives simply by ensuring that committee members assume most of the work in consultation, strategy development and advocacy.

- **Encourage representatives from all areas of police work to regularly participate in the committee's work**

Officers designated to support committees are often those charged with crime prevention or community policing. Their efforts in the community are often not regarded as "real" police work by colleagues. This can result in a lack of overall organizational support for the committees and a failure to create a meaningful partnership that ensures that the community policing philosophy is recognized in establishing priorities and planning within police services. Senior police members generally visit committees at least once a year. These visits can be useful but have limited value in developing an ongoing relationship with the committee.

- **Develop effective learning experiences for committee members.**

The means of preparing committee members for their duties vary. In most instances, police representatives see a great need to train public members who generally have only a casual understanding of the law and police practices. Committees should appreciate the complexity of police investigations, the need to respect individual rights, the judicial process and related issues. Committees will frequently decide to share this new understanding with the community.

Committees with a broad role require considerable information to guide them in their work. Approaches to training have included:

- developing "ride along" programs that give committee members first-hand experience in daily police routines;
- providing reading materials on subjects such as community policing, policies and practices of consultative committees, youth at risk, and family violence;
- arranging presentations by experts from various fields often as a regular part of meetings. Police personnel can explain aspects of the law and policing practices. Other experts can lead seminars on interpreting community crime and social data or on related fields such as substance abuse. This type of expertise from outside the policing realm, is often drawn upon when the committee identifies a specific issue of concern;
- in some regions, committee members and police officers attend conferences and workshops on developing their roles and responsibilities. Participants often consider them invaluable exercises;

II. Roles of Committees

As discussed previously, consultative committees tend to adopt various roles when they begin or later in their evolution. Beyond a strictly advisory role, these roles can include public education, advocacy and program coordination. Indeed some committees have legally incorporated to enable them to fundraise. A number of trends in the evolution of committee roles are noted below.

- Concern that consultative committees might undertake roles threatening to police organizations has not materialized. Most committees agree that it is inappropriate to become involved in specific case investigations, complaints, budget reviews or

challenges to internal policies like affirmative action programs. Committees rarely act as community watch dogs on police activity.

- Recognition by some committees of a lack of focus on their fundamental responsibilities. Pursuing complex problems such as seeking to address the social causes of crime can duplicate efforts of other organizations. CCGs can be pushed to become "all things to all people" given fiscal pressures on other community organizations to trim services.
- They can also be viewed as "interfering" in other organizations "turf". Thus determining the extent to which CCGs seek out, or respond to, the requests of other organizations in addressing the local social issues requires careful attention.
- Some committees are concerned that their continued participation in meeting multiple responsibilities, especially those concerned with various crime prevention goals, will not allow for the time, resources or capability to effectively develop a comprehensive community policing perspective and planning partnership with the police.
- Doubt that committees can effectively take on certain roles. Can they undertake education programs in schools? Can they enjoy legitimacy within communities as organizers of fundraising efforts for crime prevention groups and others? Will they have authority to determine allocation(s) of private contributions to these groups? Do the police want to be associated with such local program development and financial activity? Is it appropriate for committees to advocate for greater police resources?

Again the range of activities assumed by committees and their members requires careful attention. While many committees have had little difficulty in assuming the diverse responsibilities noted above, others have experienced community criticism or lacked the capacity and commitment to meeting such different responsibilities.

- Most CCGs have not yet developed problem-solving skills which address the range of police responsibilities. This may reflect a lack of capability to pursue any of the four problem solving stages, i.e. problem identification, analysis, response or evaluation. The community and police often do not agree on the choice of community policing issues or the priorities among them. CCGs are challenged to reconcile and balance these different views in planning for police services. Most CCGs are still sorting out their planning responsibilities. To what extent do they acquire a balanced community profile needed to gauge public concerns? How much need CCGs know of sensitive police information in meeting their responsibilities? These types of concerns continue to receive

attention of CCGs and the police. Assuming other roles may limit the CCGs' ability to develop effective problem-solving skills--essential to the long term success of CCGs in realizing community policing.

- Most CCGs have not yet adopted a comprehensive community police perspective in their work. They tend to address crime prevention and accessibility of police services rather than conventional police responsibilities like traffic control and general investigations. This useful but limited approach can result in unintended consequences, eg. when community policing is not applied comprehensively, the police can carry on business as usual and limit their involvement to a few of their programs.
- Some consultative committees originated as crime prevention committees. As such they focus on the organization, coordination and delivery of crime prevention programs. Some consultative committees are now expanding to assume such responsibilities. This expansion of mandate can be difficult. It requires that the group act separately in meeting both responsibilities. Consultative committees focus on advising the police and the community on police priorities, policies and programs. They address all aspects of community policing concerns including crime prevention. While they may encourage agencies to assume responsibilities for implementing their suggestions, they should not become directly involved in service delivery.
- As CCGs mature they tend to become accountable more to the community and less to the police. They develop a more balanced partnership that depends less on police support and legitimacy. The CCGs come to expect greater responsibility in advising and making decisions about police organization and administration. Difficulties can arise if limits to the relationship with the police are not anticipated. For example, would police respond to requests for introducing a new organizational mode like zone policing? Should CCGs have any say in hiring and posting police officers?

In light of these trends committees are encouraged to develop measures to:

- **Ensure that committees develop a problem solving capacity best suited to furthering the community policing partnership.**
- **Ensure that any expansion of responsibilities does not lead the CCG away from its original goals and objectives;**
- **Make certain that multi-functional roles are not pursued at the expense of developing comprehensive community police strategies;**

- **Guarantee that the committee and the police plan for adjustments in their partnership as it evolves.**

Issues

What Types of Issues do Committees Consider?

Given the various consultative committee models employed and distinctive community realities, there are some surprisingly common trends regarding the general approach to issues taken by committees. These include:

- Committees often highlight issues that are not major priorities for police. Public nuisance issues like squealing tires, speeding, youth "hanging around", rowdyism and municipal planning, usually take precedence over crimes like break and enter that emerge from community crime data. This may reflect limited understanding of or concern with crime patterns in their communities. Committee members may, however, assume that police are already taking care of such crimes.
- Committees are often reluctant to grapple with some serious social and legal issues that require community attention, such as family violence and sexual abuse of children. People are often uncertain as to what to do in these cases and tend still to consider them "private and personal."
- Committees generally address a range of less serious crime issues and tend to consider a variety of options rather than simply adopting the police "solution." The safer community philosophy for crime prevention and dealing with fear of crime is usually the chosen course.

Committees often choose to work on similar issues including:

Law Reform - Committees have addressed the need for changes to the Youth Offenders Act, and to laws affecting transportation, safety on land and on water, and to other areas of the law.

Community Policing - Increased police contact with the community and improved partnerships between police and the public frequently come into focus. Various means of delivering community policing including zone patrol, storefront operations and foot patrol are often considered.

Social Concerns - Committees spend considerable time on social issues, especially the behaviour of certain young people. In large cities, committees are concerned with the rising phenomena of gangs and other forms of youth violence, such as

swarming. They often take steps to increase trust and credibility between police and young people, particularly through high school programs. Committees regularly consider action on youth problems such as substance abuse, vandalism, reckless driving, and excessive idle time. They ask who should be responsible for these issues (the schools, the recreation department?) and how can young persons be encouraged to take responsibility for their own behaviour.

Crime Prevention - Committees frequently coordinate and promote crime prevention strategies such as corrections, opportunity reduction, target hardening and social development interventions.

Many committees are also concerned about the fear of crime among senior citizens, racism, and relationships between visible minorities and the police. Multicultural communities frequently examine race-related conflicts. Responsive actions can include creation of multicultural liaison officers, local multicultural advisory committees and cross-cultural training for police.

Public Accountability

Visibility in the Community

Views differ on heightening public awareness of the committees. Most committees developed their public communications strategies in an ad hoc manner. Most committees want to be accountable to the community and therefore seek public awareness by publicizing meetings, holding public sessions, getting print media exposure, publishing newsletters, or distributing minutes.

A few committees do most of their business in private, seeking community opinion on specific issues and announcing meetings but doing the bulk of their work in camera. Police sometimes want to maintain a low profile until members are comfortable with the committee concept and overcome growing pains. In other cases, closed sessions often occur when the offender is known publicly such as a bootlegger in a small town. Fear of reprisals against committee members can also inspire secrecy. In fact, few examples of threats or intimidation have occurred.

Secrecy can also result when police officers want information relating to general police matters to remain confidential. Police may also recruit members who are known informers in the community. Some police consider the informer component essential to committee effectiveness.

Access to Community Concerns and Priorities

Committees take a variety of routes to gauge community concerns. Most committees receive community crime information and analysis from the police. Some look at other types of community profiles, such as social indicators and urban planning reports. Most committees recognize the need to develop formal consultative links with their community. They employ several methods to seek public input including:

- Public surveys that identify community policing priorities, assess awareness of satisfaction with police services and note concerns about crime and community expectations.
- Providing public information and the opportunity for feedback through town hall meetings, media coverage, and newsletters.
- Seeking views on community policing interests by canvassing organizations such as chambers of commerce.

Create Appropriate Ways to Interpret Public Concerns

Committees often lack the expertise required to develop effective questionnaires and analyze the results. Questionnaires can be self-serving, for example, when they seek support for existing police practice. Some experts in survey work suggest that committee questionnaires address both police priorities and community concerns. Getting outside advice on questionnaire design and analytic methods is a further suggestion. Assistance in conducting the survey from organizations that are at arms length from the police can also help produce objective results.

The Relationship of Committees to Other Community Organizations

Relations between the CCG and other organizations can be a significant concern. Organizations often have overlapping responsibilities with those of police consultative committees and may even be in conflict with them. These organizations can include municipal crime prevention councils, police commissions, safer community networks and interagency mechanisms dealing with substance abuse, family violence or poverty. Overlapping responsibilities are most common in communities with a fairly complex organization of services. Some appreciation of existing planning and service organizations is crucial to a committee's success for a number of reasons:

- The CCG roles can be designed to complement rather than compete with or duplicate other efforts.

- Police commissions, safer community networks and others may already be advising the police on putting community policing into practice.
- Many interagency committees have active programs on crime related matters such as substance abuse and family violence.
- Safer community networks and other groups often consider themselves responsible for determining the community crime priorities and solutions.
- Some municipal councils question whether consultative committees should advocate for changes to programs like recreation for disadvantaged youth. They consider such responsibilities to rest more appropriately with bodies such as the parks and recreation committees of local councils.
- Conflicts of accountability can arise between committees and other community organizations. In one community, a safer community network established by municipal government includes police officers who are also active with consultative committees. Whose advice do the police officers take? Police commissions have differed on several occasions with consultative committees about how to operationalize community policing. How do police departments resolve these differences? Similar conflicts occur between interagency organizations and consultative committees about the appropriate mix of law enforcement and social intervention to bring to bear on community problems such as youth vandalism and substance abuse.

We suggest the following will assist in addressing the public accountability of committees:

- **Develop appropriate positions on confidentiality.** It is generally police policy not to disclose names of persons involved in investigations. However, discussions of crimes, especially in smaller communities, can implicate persons.
- **Develop a public awareness communications strategy.** The strategy should take into account confidentiality and member protection when these are appropriate concerns. It should ensure that messages are communicated clearly. For instance, how does the committee want to receive public input in establishing police priorities? Will it report back to the public on these priorities and maintain public contact in designing strategies to address each priority? Which communication methods (media coverage, public meetings, etc.) are available, sensitive to the community and appropriate means of conveying message?

- **Develop ongoing contacts with related organizations in the community.** The roles and responsibilities of CCG's and other community groups are constantly evolving. Avoiding unnecessary duplication of effort requires continuous awareness of and adaption to these changes. It requires consistent and high quality communication between CCGs and other community partners.

Section 4:

Where to From Here?

This section recognizes the emerging success in Canada with CCGs. It addresses a number of common barriers to their development and suggests actions in meeting these challenges.

Reasons for Success

CCGs will continue to be the most common means for Canadian police organizations to seek local participation in realizing community policing goals. Successful committees are growing in numbers. This fact is a consequence of the RCMP's commitment and new committees created by other police forces which had already introduced foot patrols, zone policing and storefront operations as better ways to "connect" with their communities. Experience in developing effective committees is expanding, and is recognized and valued within police organizations and communities. Successful methods are being shared in networking experiences such as regional workshops. Senior management of police organizations (including the RCMP) are incorporating CCG experience and community priorities in their planning processes. Common misperceptions are being challenged. Good committees can indeed be developed in small, rural communities where concern for crime is minimal, where police enjoy community support and where there is little formal organization of services. Crime prevention committees can be transformed to become effective partners with police in comprehensive community policing. The fit of committees within a community policing philosophy is becoming better understood as perhaps the most effective means of encouraging local participation along with storefront operations, foot patrols, and zone policing.

Some of the reasons for the success of committees include:

- A new community perspective for police. While outreach efforts such as storefront operations can improve relationships between police and the community they do not generally provide the insight into community police priorities that CCGs afford.
- CCGs usually complement rather than duplicate the perspective provided by formalized interagency committees. They address issues outside interagency interests such as traffic and public nuisance concerns. They provide a volunteer as opposed to professional perspective and thus assist the police to meet their interagency responsibilities.

- Committees give valuable support to the police. For starters, members gain an appreciation of the complexities of police work, their need for resources, and the challenges that police confront in upholding the law, e.g. an increased attention to the Charter of Rights and Freedoms. Committees demonstrate this support both privately to police officers on the committee and in public education efforts that could include explaining to the community some of the background to actions by the police or courts.
- They can pursue creative responses to crime in the community, often requiring the participation of local media, business groups, service agencies and other organizations.
- They can prevent negative community reaction to police activity and encourage a fairer assessment of police actions. While rarely publicized, this benefit has had a crucial calming effect in several communities confronted with serious race relations incidents involving police officers and visible minorities.

Barriers to Development

Development of successful committees sometimes encounters roadblocks. Various reasons have been put forth to explain the failure of committees to materialize or continue:

Lack of Commitment

- Police officials sometimes fall short in their commitment. They may lack resources to support committee development, be unwilling to train committee members, or fail to respond to committee concerns or take action on communities priorities.
- Communities can also show a lack of support for committees. Some believe the same objectives are being achieved through existing interagency committees, local officials, etc. Some resist formal means of organizing community opinion. They argue that current informal relations with police are adequate. Other communities suggest that a committee is inappropriate since they have no crime problem.

Unrealistic Expectations

- Committees do not always continue their work. Members don't show up. The group fails to develop objectives sufficient to justify the committee's continuance. Members can become frustrated with lack of police response. They may be concerned that their participation will be viewed as a "spying" exercise. Some committees are overwhelmed by the complexity of issues they believe require attention. They lack the credibility, competence, time and resources to meet these challenges.
- Some police organizations develop detailed implementation plans for committees that are simply unsuited to the character of a community. This is often the result of misinterpretation, or misunderstanding within a RCMP division of the Commissioner's policy on consultative groups. Unrealistic rigidities may be introduced to the implementation of the committees, the characteristics or operations of committees, or the timeframe expected for full implementation.

Geographic Area

- Committees are sometimes designed to meet the needs of populations that do not represent a natural community--for instance when they are defined to conform with police boundaries. This design flaw can result in communities with distinctive characteristics and different community policing interests being represented through one committee. The marriage can fail if no common agenda is possible.
- Some committees attempt to deal with agendas that do not fit the communities they serve.

Overcoming Barriers

The following suggestions are offered as ways to surmount the barriers noted above:

- **Ensure that committees are organized to meet the needs of the actual community.**

Successful committees have been developed that accommodate anything from a small neighbourhood area or several blocks to a zone within a city to several small communities or an entire town or city of over 100,000 inhabitants. The boundaries are usually determined according to police zones or detachments, but

there are exceptions. Native communities often design consultative committees for an entire reserve. Some police departments are experimenting with different detachment areas to determine what works. For example, the RCMP's Calgary sub-division is experimenting with committees responsible for different population "mixes." The boundaries follow natural community boundaries rather than police zones. This initiative focuses on developing committees to respond to the interests of persons in rural areas, native reserves and municipalities.

- **Ensure that committees propose agendas suited to their community.**

Population size has a considerable impact on committee activities. Neighbourhood and small community committees usually deal with practical issues like changing street signs, putting in cross walks or beautifying the neighbourhood. They are inclined to participate actively in problem solving because the problems appear simple. Committees that try to meet the needs of larger communities often have difficulty establishing common agendas. They tend to focus on general issues such as better service delivery by the police. Committees appear to face greater challenges in determining their roles as the size of the community increases. How do they establish a practical agenda whose goals can be achieved? How do they coordinate their efforts with those of other organizations? How do they find the information and skill required to formulate their plans? How do members representing a diversity of urban interests (e.g. businesses, women, minority interests) coordinate their views and encourage the committee to take action? Committees confronted with similar challenges tend to focus on specific policies and programs relevant to the entire community, such as the introduction of zone policing, or on major social crime problems, such as substance abuse among young people.

- **Encourage police organizations to allow partnerships with committees to evolve naturally.**

Flexibility is a useful tool. Knowledge is needed to outline the community profiles, its leaders and how it behaves. Recognized community leaders in local organizations, social planning councils, and others can be sounded for advice on how to develop the committee. Respect the dynamics of the community. A meeting might best occur during an informal gathering of community representatives--for instance at regular coffee sessions in small towns. A formal consultative process may emerge slowly--in some communities a year will not suffice. It should be viewed as a community development process largely in the control of the community. Committees may not develop as expected. They may not succeed. Responsible police officers should report on actual progress and

seek advice when the process is not working out. Ineffective committees and committees that die should be seen as part of the overall development process. When such occurs it is often best to assess and evaluate the experience and "try again" when appropriate.

- **Ensure that contributions from volunteers and police officers involved in developing committees are well recognized.**

Various means are being devised to recognize these important contributions. Retiring members can receive public thanks; members can be presented with a formal recognition of their efforts in the form of cards noting their committee membership, or an award, or special public presentation. Another useful way to encourage members is by providing opportunities to further their experience through participation at conferences and other types of training exercises. These opportunities need not be costly but can stimulate member involvement.

- **Encourage both the police and committees to educate themselves and support the arrival of the comprehensive community policing approach in our communities.**

Conclusion

Canadian society is changing very rapidly. Shifts in our socio-demographic profile, our response to and use of technology, the impact of new economic trends, the media and changing social values, together with the increased need to limit public spending, are resulting in new public expectations of police. Community policing as a guiding principle in developing and delivering police services is well suited to this rapidly changing climate. CCGs while still in their "infancy", have already begun to demonstrate their value in ensuring ongoing communications and collaboration between communities and their police organizations. While the development and maintaining of CCGs can be difficult, they will often be crucial in developing effective community policing.

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